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T H E

Journal of Home Economics

VOL. V.

FEBRUARY, 1913

No. 1

THE NUTRITION OF THE PEOPLE.¹

MAX RUBNER.

*Professor of Physiology and Director of the Physiological Institute
Berlin, Germany.*

It is a joyful thing for us all, in civilized countries, to see the general mortality more and more decreasing. In Europe the decrease commenced about the middle of the past century, from the time when well planned measures of public and private hygiene were initiated. With us in Germany social legislation has exerted an especially favorable influence on the health of the great masses. The stringent factory laws, the shortening of the working hours, the protection of women, children, and youthful workers, have not failed to produce blessings.

During recent decades wealth has increased in all civilized countries and in this good fortune, as I should say especially for Germany, not only the well-to-do but also the people of smaller means have enjoyed their due share. The deposits of the savings banks grow from year to year, and many who made use of this means of small savings have advanced to investments of larger sums. The generally increasing wealth is the cause of the reduction of general mortality which at times takes place almost by bounds. Körösi has especially shown how the mortality of infectious diseases, as well as of non-communicable diseases, decreases in a remarkable manner with the increase of general wealth. In the civilized countries hundreds of thousands rise every

¹ Delivered before the Fifteenth International Congress on Hygiene and Demography, at Washington, D. C., September 24, 1912.

year into the healthier well-to-do classes and so improve their nutrition, their living conditions, and the care of their children. These facts and these successes fill us with the hope that the development of the humanitarian hygienic ideas will continue.

But it would be entirely wrong to relax our effort, for human development does not stand still, and the advances in industrial life do not always bring an increase of health. The hygienist who travels with open eyes through the old continent of Europe will frequently see deficiencies which general statistics do not reveal. Life has not become a paradise yet for all people, and even among nations that can boast of a great increase of wealth, there are still hundreds of thousands for whom life is hard. A reduction of general mortality is not at all proof of an improvement of the somatic qualities of a people, and yet this ought to be the final aim of all hygienic effort.

The study of the conditions of the poor shows us, in spite of the great assistance rendered by private and public humanitarian institutions, that there is room for much improvement. We frequently find instances of poor bodily development—especially in the large cities of all countries—weakly looking individuals, with a pale color, whose misery is written in their faces. But beyond these narrow circles of misery, we hear complaints that, in spite of the reduced mortality, the bodily strength and endurance of dwellers in large cities, and especially of factory workers, are decreasing among adults as well as among children. Many are the causes of this reduced bodily efficiency of the inhabitants of large cities. We find them also among the better classes, where lack of exercise, professional mental exertion, and the effects of school life, are rightly mentioned as causes. But among the poorer classes the causes are oftenest found in health impaired by the struggle for daily bread. The problem of the nutrition of the people is doubtless of the highest significance for the quality of a nation.

The XIV International Congress of Hygiene and Demography held at Berlin in September, 1907, considered two questions concerning the nutrition of the people, of which I published later a detailed exposition in book form (*Volksernährungsfragen*). But the nutrition of the people is so important that I deem it proper to discuss it today from a somewhat modified viewpoint. Much has been written on nutrition of the people, especially in the daily press, but mostly by people who are laymen in questions of nutrition.

The layman is quick in his decision, even on questions which present the gretest difficulties to the specialist. Every time the price of a

food product is advanced he sees before him at once "impending famine." Calamity cries, such as "starvation wages," embitter the agitation. And yet, these clamors and accusations, as the specialist sees at once, are based on nothing but misleading assumptions and fallacious calculations. If we want to really advance the cause, it can only be done by approaching the truth scientifically, and not until then can we hope for rational measures against these conditions. Many sins have been committed in the study of the nutrition of the people, for instance, in starting with the statistical conception that a normal working man's ration might be determined, and thence proceeding to the assumption that any diet below this must mean undernutrition and starvation diet. I have already shown at the XIV International Congress in Berlin, that such a procedure is purely arbitrary. For there is no normal ration for workingmen, either with regard to the amount or the quality of the food, nor is the term "working-man" of any uniform significance.

These things are always related to the natural resources of each country. A world traveler will find strong and healthy men among widely different peoples subsisting on widely different food supplies. Just because the conditions are so complicated only a critical study can show us the right way through the physiology of nutrition.

I believe we may say that the nutrition of the people has been improved in almost all countries, in so far as the danger of famine involving a whole nation seems to have passed, as is the case with civilized countries. Exceptionally, famine may yet occur in some places. I remind the reader of the not rare occurrence of general lack of food in India; of some isolated instances in Russia during recent decades which have been described by Blauberg; of occasional famines during sieges in modern times. People are troubled in such cases, not only by the lack of food, but by a terrible increase of sickness and pestilence.

But with nations having adequate means of communications, the world commerce and exchange of food materials afford ample security as to food supplies. England commenced in 1830 to import cereals from foreign countries and depends to-day, when her agricultural products are unusually small, almost entirely on the import of foreign food stuffs; and other nations are also compelled to import more or less from foreign countries. With well organized transportation such countries will generally be protected against want of food, perhaps in a better and safer manner than countries which depend entirely on their own products and lack means of international communication.

Defective nutrition of the masses, and its social dangers lie in the fact that the food does not keep the body in a normal or average condition. When this bodily change is caused by insufficient means of livelihood and a real want of food, we are in the presence of evil social conditions. That such conditions exist, there is not the least doubt. Insufficient food leads to a decrease of the cells of the body, to a loss in muscle power, in consequence of which, at least in many trades, work cannot be accomplished except by extraordinary effort and by overstrain, leading to anaemic conditions, to loss of spirit, to discontent, to class hatred. Insufficient food may produce wasting in infants, and in adolescents a retarded growth which cannot be regained at a later period. Want of food reduces mental energy in children and renders education more difficult. The food of the under nourished is also in many cases poor tasting food or that which is inferior or partly spoiled.

Under-nourishment shows its effects especially in regions where the climate is severe and the products of the soil are scanty, rarely in regions where the products of the soil are easily procured.

Bad food, an insufficiently nourished body, worry and care, and much work, consume the organism, and bring an early old age, not only the external appearance of age but also the organic changes of age.

An old organism is one that is declining and therefore more susceptible to disease. Every year of increase in age puts a man of advanced years in another and higher "mortality class." It is, in a narrower sense, a chronic want of food which we have to combat.

Only a century ago, in European countries, the food of the lower classes of people was extremely miserable. Great numbers of poor people depended entirely on begging their food. We must not think ourselves the first to lay healing fingers on this sore. It will be interesting, perhaps, if I give an account in a few words of the beginnings of systematic improvement of the nutrition of the poor and of the masses.

The first man to whom we owe a thorough study of the nutrition of the lower classes was an American, Thompson, born near the city of Boston. Through various circumstances he entered the British service. He went to London, and from there to Munich, where he entered the Bavarian administrative service under the Elector Charles Theodor, attained a very high position and was elevated to the title of Count of Rumford. By this name he is well known in the history of physics. Much less known are his social and hygienic writings, though

it is a great pleasure to read them. Rumford established in Munich the first organization for the improvement of popular nutrition. In our days there exist still popular Volks Küchenrecepten, the Rumfordsuppe, and the development of a kind of Volks Küche, all attributable to Rumford's initiative.

Munich owes him by far the finest park, the "English Garden." There a monument to his memory bears the inscription:

Ihm
Der das schmälige öffentliche
Übel
Den Müssiggang und Bettel tilgte.
Der Armut "Hülff" Erwerb und Sitten,
Der vaterländschen Jugend
So manche Bildungsanstalt gab
Lustwandler geh
Und sinne nach Ihm gleich zu sein
An Geist und Tat
Und uns
An Dank.

His life falls in the time when the real food values of the various food stuffs were not yet known, but what he did for the improvement of the people's nutrition, is to this day remarkable. His first aim was to procure for the lower classes better opportunities to earn money. His second was to improve the technique of cooking, its cheapening, and the introduction of foreign food stuffs before unknown in Bavaria, such as the American maize. He made use of barley and of the potato in forming cooking receipts which furnished good and cheap food. He also turned against the excessive flesh diet of the English and recommended to the better classes the use of rye bread, macaroni, noodles, barley, and potatoes. More than a century has passed since then and many improvements have taken place here and there, but, in general, public interest in this question has been roused only occasionally, to disappear again quickly.

Hygiene first developed in the direction of measures for the preservation of health, the sanitation of towns, and the prevention of infectious diseases.

In the field of the physiology of nutrition the laws of nutrition were gradually experimentally established by the Munich school. Then followed measures against the adulteration of food stuffs, against alcoholism; for improved feeding in the army, in prisons and hospitals; the establishment of people's kitchens, and, since the nineties of the

past century, a thorough study of the nutrition of the infant. Here and there thorough researches were made concerning the nutrition of certain professional classes, of farm workers, of some groups of industrial workers.

In the course of time we have seen many social changes of significance with regard to popular nutrition. One of the most important of these factors which dominate the food question is the amount of mechanical work. It is clear that a blacksmith or a farmer in the field develops a far greater appetite than a clerk or a tailor, and the food requirements of the blacksmith will be quite different if he works ten or twelve hours, or if, for want of full time employment, he works only four or five hours a day.

With regard to the amount of work done opinions have enormously changed in the course of a century. Since the development of the industries by machinery the valuation of the human working power has changed. The bodily qualities of the worker have been forced by the employer more and more into the background of valuation. Industrial factory work requires strong men not so much as persons who can perform with skill the many small tasks which the machines have so far not been able to perform. Hence the tendency to employ children, half grown persons, and women. With the extension of commerce the demand for office workers has increased and in the administration of state affairs a whole army of officials is needed. The number of those who do little manual work increases. Factory laws have more and more tempered the severity and duration of work by shortening the working hours. Even in the country, in agriculture, machine work has substantially diminished the heavier kinds of work. This is, from a hygienic point of view, to be regretted, though this sounds rather paradoxical; for a certain amount of bodily labor is advantageous to the organism, as it strengthens the muscles, the respiration, the lungs, blood making, and heart action. The harmfulness of some of these changed conditions has been recognized and people try to balance the lack of paid muscle work by work for hygienic reasons, by play and sport. Taken all in all the food requirements of the civilized nations have decreased because muscular work has declined.

I am convinced that if we could determine the weight of whole nations, we would find that this weight has decreased with the industrialization of labor, not because the race has changed in itself, but because the nutritive conditions have changed for a large number of people.

The question which interests us in this connection is, not so much whether industrial workers possess a sufficient development for their work as whether their bodily condition is weaker than is consistent with the requirements of health. If we consider the population from the point of view of their work and their working capacity we shall find that the country people represent the stronger and the city dwellers the weaker, portion of the people.

Industrialization of the nations is accompanied by another phenomenon. In former times the cities were small, they were only inhabited by tradesmen, merchants, and state officials. The railroads have necessarily caused the erection of steam-power factories near the cities, and since then the growth of smaller and larger cities has steadily progressed.

In 1871, 64 per cent of the population of Germany still lived in the country, today scarcely one-half. In 1840, 91 per cent of the population of the United States lived in the country and 9 per cent in the cities; but at the present time more than one-fourth dwell in cities. In England scarcely one-fourth of the total population lives in rural communities. This distribution of the industrial workers is not without importance for the food question. It is just among them that conditions have at times been especially unfavorable. Only a small portion of industrial establishments are in rural districts, which offer for this class more favorable living conditions.

The people who do little muscular work live in cities. It is clear that in bodily development they cannot be placed on a level, in respect to food requirements, with the people used to harder work. It is a great mistake that in many statistical works on nutrition the changed valuation of man as a power machine, has not been considered. The modern industrialized population uses doubtless less food than a true working population of earlier times.

Life requires unquestionably a certain amount of energy in the food. Without it our machine cannot perform work, and for certain trades and tasks, we are able to say how much food is necessary.

It is true a "luxus consumption" may occur; the most frequent deviation of this sort is seen in obesity, for the fat man is not only heavier but he must eat more because he is heavier. If we examine the poor city population, overfed, fat people will rarely be found; lean persons are more frequent. If a certain degree of leanness is reached we speak of undernutrition. Such an underfed individual often needs, with the same body length, 30 per cent less food than a

normal person. But this condition is unhealthy, for such people often lack one-third and more of the normal cell content, the efficient substances. This results in harm, as I have already said. In an underfed person less food is required to satisfy the sensation of hunger. If one has passed a certain time with little food he will get used to it. But, though he has no sensation of hunger, he may sometimes be sensible of his weakness, his reduced power to work, and the impoverished condition of his blood. The "managing expenses" of the underfed, if we may say so, are therefore less, and it is even possible that, in certain kinds of work, a man with such an impoverished body may be able to get along.

I do not want to go into details and explain here that we must, for hygienic reasons, combat such conditions of insufficient nutrition, I will rather mention the causes which lead to such a condition. It is possible that it takes place when the total amount of the calories of the ingested food is too small. This is often seen in people of the better classes who have become poor, who carefully stick to their former way of living, but who from want of means, have to reduce the quantities of food more and more, though a cheaper kind of food would preserve their weight. Much more frequently the cause of an impoverished condition is a lack of proteid. There are in the world many more proteid-poor than proteid-rich food stuffs, the former of which are on an average more expensive.

Every race diet has developed on the basis of the products of the soil of the country. This was the invariable rule so long as the means of transportation between different countries were primitive, but it is still a valid rule, as is notable in the case of those nations which have long since ceased to produce enough food from their own soil. The habits of taste have lasted longer than the food supplied by their own soil and their needs are satisfied by importation. Sometimes revolutions occur in the field of popular nutrition. Such a revolution was caused by the introduction of the potato in many extensive regions.

The chief amount of the food of a people is everywhere furnished by a product of the soil. Wheat and rye, rice, maize, potatoes and bananas are, according to the various countries, the principal parts of the nutrition of the people. The basic substance is therefore everywhere of vegetable origin. But none of these foods is used alone, on account of the necessity of change and the needs of the palate. The eaters of wheat and rye consume these food stuffs mostly as bread, though they can be prepared in other ways. The potato can be prepared in a

great many ways. Rice and maize are chiefly used for porridge-like dishes; the banana is eaten raw and cooked.

The additions to the chief food are almost always substances rich in proteid, mostly from the animal kingdom, meat or milk, or leguminous vegetables. Are such additions of a purely culinary nature or are they of importance for the laws of nutrition? This question has only been answered by the researches of the last few years.

It can be demonstrated that, in the science of practical nutrition, we cannot speak of a world-menu as requiring a definite unit of proteid, for the various proteid substances contained in the various food stuffs have not the same value, as I was the first to show, and which the work of my laboratory has confirmed. One hundred grams of milk proteid, 100 grams of leguminous proteid, and 100 grams of maize proteid are very different things.

For a normal man 25 to 30 grams of proteid are, in favorable cases, sufficient, if it consists in milk proteid and in a certain amount of meat proteid, and if it is completely absorbed. This is an astonishingly small amount, and it is interesting to learn that the infant at the mother's breast consumes a similar amount of proteid, if we make a comparative calculation.

But to apply this proportion to any kind of food as it occurs in practical life, is not at once possible, because, as I have said, the different proteids have not the same value and because we have also to consider the differences of absorption, slight disturbances of digestion, and losses. A little more than the normal amount is to some extent a factor of safety to prevent the occasional losses of proteid. We cannot go below the minimum figures mentioned above for adults; in this lies their importance with respect to the considerations which follow.

I will now show in what relation the principal representative materials of popular food stuffs stand to each other. I separate the food requirements, according to two large groups, persons with considerable muscular work, and persons with light muscular work.

For a strong workman the following food materials are necessary to meet the caloric requirements:

3080 gm. potatoes	with 83 gm. proteid	equal to 65 gm. meat or milk proteid
800 gm. rice	with 75 gm. proteid	equal to 66 gm. meat or milk proteid
800 gm. maize	with 78 gm. proteid	equal to 22 gm. meat or milk proteid
1500 gm. bread	with 98 gm. proteid	equal to 38 gm. meat or milk proteid
3080 gm. bananas	with 29 gm. proteid	equal to 26 gm. meat or milk proteid

For a factory worker who does little muscular work we get the following figures:

2400 gm. potatoes ²	with 65 gm. proteid equal to 51 gm. milk or meat proteid
685 gm. rice	with 58 gm. proteid equal to 51 gm. milk or meat proteid
620 gm. maize	with 60 gm. proteid equal to 18 gm. milk or meat proteid
1031 gm. bread	with 70 gm. proteid equal to 28 gm. milk or meat proteid
2400 gm. bananas	with 22 gm. proteid equal to 16 gm. milk or meat proteid

If we now pass over some differences of absorption, it will at once be seen that, even with a large consumption, a strong workman cannot possibly live on maize and bananas without the addition of nitrogenous food. What we hear about an exclusive banana diet in Africa is impossible. Still more unfavorable is the aspect of the popular food materials with regard to their proteid content for men who need less food because their work does not require great muscular exertion. Bread, maize, and bananas, alone would be a starvation diet for them. Potatoes and rice will here just suffice, but certainly no more, when the body has been impoverished and has suffered a loss of weight and its total food requirements have been reduced. Without other nitrogen sources we could not, therefore, get along. The usual vegetables and fruits cannot be considered, and the only nitrogen sources remaining are leguminous foods. But as only six-tenths of their chemical contents of proteid can be considered for nutrition it takes considerable quantity to obtain a sufficient amount of proteid. The soy bean occupies in this respect an especially favorable position because it contains also a large amount of fat and is therefore much used in Japan as a popular food. Many valuable vegetable proteids cannot be used by man as food because his intestine cannot dissolve the vegetable fiber. If we omit the Hindoos an exclusive vegetable diet is of very great rarity. A preponderating vegetable diet is always accompanied by small amounts of animal foods, milk or milk products, fish, fowl, or the flesh of domestic animals.

Meat does not take a prominent place in the food of country people in the civilized countries of Europe, even in olden times; but milk and milk products are much used, which addition is very much to the pur-

² If we consider the loss of proteid in the solid excretions we would approximately get:

For potatoes.....	value of proteid	44
For rice.....	value of proteid	44
For maize.....	value of proteid	9
For bread.....	value of proteid	13
For bananas.....	value of proteid	11

pose, as even moderate amounts of milk raise the proteid considerably. Such additions permit important variations of diet, increase the palatability, and lessen the volume of the daily food, as with the milk always a little fat can be used. Nobody can justly claim that such a meat poor or meatless diet is good and sufficient. Workers migrating from the country to the cities, or industrial workers grown up in the city, become acquainted with other forms of nourishment which appear to them desirable as a sign of a higher social position.

A nutrition exclusively, or almost exclusively, based on cereals is from a hygienic viewpoint not at all perfect. Though in our days ergot poisoning does not occur and solanin poisoning by potatoes offers no general interest, yet in regions where maize is used as food in large quantities, pellagra is today not a rare disease. Where rice is used exclusively we find the disease beri-beri. In the Japanese navy beri-beri has been reduced in fourteen years from 23.75 to 0.11 per cent, by reducing the rice diet and introducing a mixed diet.

Nutrition in the cities has at all times a tendency toward refinement, but in former times, when the classes lived strictly separate, the food materials were also very different within the city walls. The food of the nobility was different from that of the middle class, and the latter from that of the poor people. Among the materials successfully used in the culinary art a high place has always been held by the meat of mammals, fowls, and fishes. These meats were the chief part of the meal, other foods of vegetable origin, as salads and vegetables, sweets and flour foods being added. Bread remained in the back ground. The traditions of this culinary art have remained the same down to our days. This diet of the upper classes is the only one which provides the pleasures of the table, it is rich in proteid and fat, it is not voluminous, does not overburden the stomach, tends less to obesity than any other diet, keeps the body even of a lazy man in good condition, and does not overwork the digestive functions. The less well-to-do reduce, of course, the amount of meat, but they use in its place bread and potatoes. This is called a mixed diet. When the barriers between the classes fell, the middle classes gradually rose to the more luxurious food of the formerly privileged classes.

It is a fact that the diet of the well-to-do is not in itself physiologically justified; it is not even healthy, for, on account of false notions of the strengthening effect of meat, too much meat is used by young and old and by children, and this is harmful. But this meat diet is publicly sanctioned; it is found in all hotels, it has become international and has supplanted almost everywhere the characteristic local culinary

art. It has also been adopted in countries where European culinary art was unknown. Long ago the medical profession started an opposition to the exaggerated meat diet, long before the vegetarian propaganda was started. It was maintained that flour-foods, vegetables, and fruit should be eaten in place of the overlarge quantities of meat.

The descendants of those well-nourished classes are, on account of many influences, especially the school and the indoor life, not always the strongest part of the nation, but, since in recent times bodily exercises have become general, they are again decidedly in the ascendancy.

The sanitary conditions of the great mass of industrial workers and their children, and of people of very small earnings, are different. Here we find a decided deterioration of the body as is amply shown by the recruiting for military purposes. In spite of continuous migration from the country to the cities, conditions are little changed. The social surroundings of a great city are decidedly unfavorable to the maintenance of a strong race. Among the many factors which cause this decrease of bodily efficiency nutrition is not the least.

The industrial workers coming from the country to the city cannot well get along with their former simple diet, because the cheap food materials which are easily obtained, as bread and potatoes, contain too little proteid. They undoubtedly need an increase of proteid material. Neither can they find in the city the food conditions to which they had formerly been used; but they accommodate themselves rapidly to new conditions, coming into the new surroundings, as they usually do, without a family. Just as, under the doctrine of political equality, the lower classes try to attain the luxurious table of the well-to-do, so it is not surprising that industrial workers, coming from the country to the cities, accommodate themselves to the new dietary forms.

The workingman does not want proteid, leguminous food, milk, etc., to improve his vegetable diet; he wants simply meat, not because he needs it, but because it is for him a matter of pride to follow as best he can the other classes in his diet. The difficulty is that the cost of meat is considerably higher than in the country where food can usually be obtained without the aid of dealers, and where many food stuffs are raised on one's own land.

By far the cheapest articles, according to present prices, are potatoes, peas, and rye bread; the cheapest vegetable is green cabbage; the cheapest animal food, milk and cheese; the cheapest meat, the herring;

the cheapest fruit dried apples. Sugar is in price about equal to wheat bread, but beef is always expensive. Instead of butter the poorer people use beef suet, or other animal fat, and vegetable fat. As the prices of meat are high, beef must be replaced by the cheaper fish; wheat, and rye bread are replaced by potatoes; coffee by substitutes. The meat used for sausage making is frequently of an inferior grade, which undisguised could not be sold.

Every increase in prices alarms the workingman lest he may have to get along without this or that article which he likes, and he is the last man to ask himself whether such self-denial will be harmful to him or not. If a man of the better classes is advised by his physician to reduce his allowance of meat, and to deny himself here and there, he usually follows the advice, and today there are many people who have learned the wisdom of self-denial.

Though the tendency to imitate the diet of the better classes is certainly an important factor in the nutrition of the great masses, it is not the only cause of the constant increase of meat consumption in the cities, as observed in the last few decades. In this connection, a very remarkable fact must be mentioned, which has been overlooked heretofore. Forty years ago it might be said that the diet was by far too deficient in fat, today it is astonishing what a rôle fats play in many parts of Germany, and also in other countries. Bread which was formerly eaten alone—in South Germany, Austria, France and Italy it is still done—is now only eaten with butter or some other fat. The consumption of fat has increased so much that, in many parts of northern Germany, twice as much fat is consumed as compared with southern Germany. The result is that, with the high energy value of fat, the large quantities of vegetables formerly used are not now needed, while a corresponding amount of vegetable proteid, now omitted, must be replaced in some other way.

One hundred grams fat correspond in combustion value to 260 grams flour with 26.5 grams proteid; 950 grams potatoes with 20.0 grams proteid; and 278 grams rice with 19.2 grams proteid.

The man with a small income uses 6 to 7 per cent of it to buy fat, partly butter, partly oleomargarine. The large consumption of fat is frequently connected with a rapid increase of the consumption of coffee. The consumption of real coffee is by no means a measure of the use of this beverage because immense quantities of substitutes are consumed. The consumption of milk is also rising in the cities, but the classes that drink much coffee do not form the larger portion

of the consumers of milk. In Germany, as in England, the coffee and tea drinkers eat much buttered bread at all times of the day.

Where sugar is cheap its consumption has also considerably increased. Sugar, too, has replaced a portion of the nitrogenous vegetables in the dietary. In many groups of the population, especially in the lower classes, the consumption of alcoholic beverages has not been reduced in the same degree as among the educated classes. It is not rare that 10 to 11 per cent of the income is spent in this way among the poorer classes. I have already said that the consumption of alcohol is, according to the science of nutrition, equal to a deterioration of diet, because it causes, in proportion to its energy value, a reduction of the other food materials, especially of bread, potatoes, etc., so that here also a lower proteid level results.

The lower proteid level attributable to the use of fats, sugar, and alcohol is, of course, significant. The consumption of 100 grams fat, 50 grams sugar, 50 grams alcohol, is not at all rare among the modern additions to the vegetable diet of our time. With such a diet it is not at all possible to carry nutrition on with cereals and potatoes without the addition of a proteid food, for the proteid content is enormously reduced, and the proteid thus displaced cannot be replaced from a vegetable source.

Let us assume a man to be carrying on his nutrition with pea meal, then he needs for 2400 kgal. per day 690 grams. If he consumes with this 100 grams fat = 930 kgal., 50 grams alcohol = 355 kgal. and 50 grams cane sugar = 188 kgal., these nitrogen free substances amount to 1473 kgal. and the man needs therefore 407 grams less of peas than before, therefore only 690 to 407 = 283 grams of peas. The latter contains 73 grams proteid, 5 grams fat, and 162 grams carbohydrates. The nutritive value of the pea proteid is only six-tenths of that of the milk and meat proteid. Therefore only 44 grams of proteid can actually be utilized!³

We learn from this vegetable food, which is extremely rich in proteid, that this whole development of the nutrition of the poorer classes must, from its irrational composition, lead to a great lack of proteid, as well as to the necessity to consume animal food. But among the city populations it is not milk, and not cheese, but meat, which forms the source of animal food.

Sandwiches play in our times a great rôle in nutrition not only among the poorer classes but also among the well-to-do. This is to a great

³ Sixteen grams are lost daily in the solid excretions.

extent due to the labor conditions in the great cities. With the English working hours, sandwiches are very convenient. The workingman who works frequently very far from his home, takes sandwiches with him; they are compact, can be eaten quickly, anywhere, and they are nourishing. Every "nickel in the slot" device for selling food furnishes this modern meal. Rolls are also most convenient for thousands of people who, for some reason, cannot take a regular dinner or supper.

As necessary as fat is for a strong workingman with a large consumption of food, because we can only by its addition prevent too great an increase of the food volume, it is now extensively consumed by people who take daily 2400 to 2600 kgal. If a family spends an equal amount of money for potatoes, flour, rice, leguminous food and vegetables, it is not a physiological necessity, but an unhygienic habit, which can be dispensed with.

In the unfavorable food conditions just mentioned lies the chief reason of the increasing demand for meat and of the increasing food prices, though the food does not increase in nutritive value. Therefore the quantity of food is frequently reduced, or the necessary amount of proteid cannot always be made up by the expensive animal foods. The demands on the cooking art, and for warm food, are more and more lowered.

We thus see how, for city dwellers, the food changes for various reasons, and the prices of meat become, for a large portion of the poor population, very important. With the great expense in money for this kind of food, there remains scarcely anything else but potatoes to satisfy the dietary needs of a chief meal.

Most conservative as to the food question, is the farmer, though in the country, too, many changes are taking place. He has frequent contact with the city, but he has still plenty of food material though not always quite suitable to the purpose. I have noticed a very unfavorable influence of urban food requirements on the milk producing districts of some regions of Switzerland and Germany, which is so characteristic that it deserves consideration. The milk producing regions of the Bavarian highlands and of Switzerland, had formerly an extremely healthy, strong, and temperate population. Milk was largely used as a food, and the excess of production was placed on the market. In the course of years the communities gradually established central dairies in which the fat is withdrawn from the milk by means of centrifugal machines to produce cream and butter. The impoverished milk is partly returned to the farmers. The milk

producers are paid in cash for their product, but a poor and insufficient food takes now the place of a former healthy one. The money now goes to the saloons. The potato conquers a new territory. Instead of the butter which was formerly used, cheap fats are now bought; in short, the change of diet is exactly such as we find with the poorer working population in the cities. The effects are exactly the same. Physical deterioration in such districts becomes more and more pronounced reaching finally a low level. This is a very serious condition, which attracts attention and which must be combated by all possible means.

The population, especially of the large cities, suffers in many ways from abnormal nutrition, which manifests itself in a reduction of the size of the body, and of the bodily development, with all its unfavorable consequences. In all civilized countries the country population represents still the healthiest types of man, whose conservation is absolutely necessary. I have already shown that this source is shrinking more and more on account of the migration of the population to the cities. So much the more must we consider the protection of rural population against the loss of its food supply.

For the various reasons mentioned the city population lays the chief weight on a meat diet, and the poorer classes see, in every increase of the price of meat, a great calamity. There are, of course, thousands, who have to stick, willing or unwilling, to a preponderating vegetable diet, and they see poverty in such a diet, though, in other parts of the country, we find people contented with the same diet and the same food materials. The valuation of the diet by the layman stands always in relation to the money his fellowman spends for food. There are doubtless also families quite well satisfied with the humblest kind of food.

In considering the underlying causes of insufficient nutrition of the people, we do not reach the idea that hunger is always knocking at the workingman's door. We see evil social conditions which lead to insufficient food conditions rather than an utter inability to procure sufficient food, and often the cause does not belong to food physiology. An increased income may lead to improvement of nutrition, but the considerations which arise here do not belong to hygiene. I simply mention the cheapening of food stuffs by tariff reduction, the elimination of the middleman, the workings of trusts, and importation by consumers' associations.

Of great value would be the establishment of cheap restaurants which would furnish the workingman really nutritious food for the noon day lunch which he must eat away from home.

It would be a great improvement if the factories were not built in or near cities, but in the country; for, not to mention the housing conditions, it is there much easier to obtain cheap and healthful food, and the workmen could even raise some of their own food supplies. In the cities, small expenses for luxury and pleasure mount up very fast, while in the country there is usually no chance to spend the income foolishly.

The agricultural worker in the service of the great land-owners is not so favorably situated as the independent farmer, but he is better off than the workingman of his class in the cities.

The struggle against alcoholism is also a factor of immense importance. Millions of people could be well nourished if they would cease spending enormous sums for alcohol, for the expenditure of 10 to 20 per cent of the income for alcohol is unhappily not rare.

In the cities the food question is also complicated with the housing question, especially rents, for housing and food are the most important items in domestic economy. In many cities of Europe the advantage taken of the financially weaker middle classes, and of working people, by real estate speculators and building and loan associations, by high rents, and by hindrance of city development, has become a public calamity. The means of procuring nourishment are thus greatly limited. It makes an enormous difference whether people have to spend one-tenth or one-fourth of their income for rent.

In the countries and cities where rents are very high, the workingman must live in quarters so congested that he cannot speak of a home or of family life, and in consequence the workingman pays long and frequent visits to the saloon, merely to escape his own uncomfortable dwelling. Frequently this home is not occupied by him alone, part of the space being rented to strangers. These ruthless speculators, who transform dwelling houses gradually into one-room dwellings are commonly called "*Wohnungszertrümmerer*" (House destroyers); but it would be truer to call them "*Familienzertrümmerer*" (Family destroyers). They are responsible for a great deal of hygienic misery in great cities, though no attempt is made to stop their piratical business. Thousands of families are not able to procure dwelling space with a kitchen, and must eat outside the house, thus incurring greater expense. For hundreds of thousands of families, therefore, domestic hygiene necessitates a solution of the food problem. Often it happens that both husband and wife work in the factory and thus only supper can be taken at home. In many cases want of knowledge on the part of the wife is the cause of poor nutrition. This

is true not only in the poorer classes, but is generally true. Instruction in domestic management must inevitably become a required study for young girls. The wife must know how to manage the income. She must know the food materials and their nutritive value, and how to produce good and nourishing food. For this the foundation must be laid in school. Nobody needs such instruction more than the wife of the working man, especially those girls who, early in life, undertake factory work, and early become wives and mothers, without the least knowledge or experience in domestic management or in the care of children. It is unbelievable how foolishly small means are often spent. In thousands of families there would be adequate nutrition if the wife knew how to manage things. Housekeeping schools must be the means of solving problems of nutrition.

The husband, too, should have a knowledge of diet, that he may hold the proper views on the question. Such an education—it must again and again be said—is only possible when the elementary school becomes a vehicle of hygienic knowledge. Only a few civilized countries have so far introduced hygienic instruction into popular education. In most cases hygienic teaching is furnished only in portions of text-books on other subjects. The age of school attendance is the proper time to establish sound hygienic views. When once imbued with false opinions it is very difficult to free the minds of children from wrong views, and on this account it is most important to begin with this instruction in the elementary schools.

The food question must also be considered with regard to the coming generation and to the growth of the nation, as well as with regard to the well-being of the children. Complaints are frequently heard of late years about the increasing sterility of women. Doubtless the reasons for this are very different among the different nations and it would be an idle task to search for the causes of decrease of births. I will only mention what may be said with regard to nutrition. It is certain that the fertility of women is greater in the country and that it is especially the great cities which show a decrease of births. Experience shows that fertility decreases as the social standing becomes higher. Wherever the lower classes gradually rise into higher social levels, the number of children decreases, because wealth and culture lead gradually to a protection of women against too many births, and because a good education for the children does not admit of a large number, and because the age at which the husband marries is in itself a restraining factor.

In the country children are helpers at work, and a wife who bears few children is not desirable. The cost of supporting them is of little importance considering the simplicity of life in the country. In the lower classes of the population of the great cities we find the greatest poverty usually among the families with many children. The difficulty begins with renting a dwelling. Many house owners refuse to take families with many children just as they do not allow the keeping of cats and dogs. The care of children requires the undivided attention of the mother. The children themselves grow up under unfavorable conditions. Large buildings, in themselves unsanitary, compel families with many children to live in one or two rooms. It is impossible for each member of the family to have his own bed or sometimes even a proper sleeping place. In summer the only resort is a court yard with little light and air, or the street made dangerous by passing vehicles. In the city, children are unproductive, for they cannot work, as is possible in the country. The chance to work is denied to city children. The conditions of life for children have not at all improved in recent years in our great cities. The difficulty of providing them with food increases more and more, and yet there are people who are astonished that under such conditions the number of children decreases. Is it not most remarkable that, under present conditions, so many children are born and raised in the great cities?

Leaving the discouraging questions of housing and food, and of the disintegration of family life, our attention is at once attracted to the care and nutrition of infants. In recent years the nutrition of infancy has been a subject of deep concern both to physicians and laymen, from the merely quantitative view point of saving the race, especially in those countries where increase of population is slight and the mortality of the children inflicts serious loss in the numerical strength of the nation. Although great progress had been made in the prevention of adult mortality, the mortality of the children seemed to continue almost unabated. Without scientific study of this question a solution was impossible. Not until we began to search for the causes did we reach solid ground.

In the field of infantile nutrition the fault lies with mothers who are ignorant concerning the care of children, and, in the second place, in poverty. But the former cause is the more important.

A great movement is now on foot among poor and rich to spread a knowledge of the care of children, and we may expect its ultimate success. Many questions are to be solved; the promotion of breast

feeding; the search for a substitute for milk where breast feeding is impossible; improvement of cow's milk for children; the cheapening and even free dispensing of milk for children's use. The care of children has of late years attracted great attention in Germany and other countries. But until housing conditions in the great cities are greatly improved, our efforts will be rewarded by only very partial success.

Another great and new field of the food question awaits our attention; the question of removing the bad effects of insufficient nutrition of school children by free feeding at the schools. It is not in itself a new field, for so long as insufficient nutrition is found among the people, the children are affected by it. Insufficient nutrition of school children is only one symptom of the general condition of the people, a symptom which facilitates the diagnosis of bad general conditions, revealing them very clearly since compulsory education has brought all the children under general supervision. Whoever does not believe in the defects and shortcomings of our food conditions, whoever considers them exaggerated, may find in the conditions of the nutrition of the school children evidences of the actual state of affairs in the population at large.

The question of furnishing free meals to school children has been a subject of much study. Complaints about insufficient nutrition long ago attracted the interest of charitable people, and they furnished relief to the best of their ability. But the conditions became very much worse with lapse of time and the consequences more marked. Here, too, we find the same end-causes whose evil influence is manifest in the nutrition of the masses. The problem has become chronic and concerns the state in its most vital interests, in the strength and vitality of the coming generation. It has been found that, summer and winter, a small proportion (0.6 to 1 per cent) of children go to school without breakfast; many more children (3 to 5 per cent), summer and winter, in spite of charitable assistance, receive only a small cold lunch instead of a warm meal at noon. Some of these children receive, at least in the evening, a warm meal, but there are tens of thousands of children, who have a warm meal neither at noon nor in the evening. Thousands go to bed without any supper. In the life of the school children the want of food plays therefore an important rôle.

Bad nourishment leaves its mark on the body of the child, though childhood has its own resistance against harmful influences, in so far at least as grief and care cannot make such deep impressions as in

later years, and childish vitality, with its care-free mind, easily survives many troubles. After bodily injuries of limited duration youth has the faculty to recuperate when times of better nutrition return. How convalescent children thrive in a few weeks when they are properly taken care of! But all these advantages of the young body have their limits, and notwithstanding these advantages, we cannot be deceived as to permanent injuries from insufficient nutrition such as are observed in children of school age.

Pale faces, anaemic skin, stunted growth, the impoverished body, show us what serious injuries are inflicted upon the young organism, how an unkind fate threatens to nip the strength of youth in its bud.

Since school physicians of late years have been examining children more closely with regard to the condition of their health, there seems no end to the trouble. Especially in the public schools the percentage of children with poor constitutions is very large, five and even ten times greater than in the schools which are mostly frequented by children of the more comfortable classes. This is an enormous difference, especially when we consider that in the better schools, too, many well founded complaints are heard about poor health of the students, caused by over work.

It is then a fact that many children are insufficiently nourished. How can the pleasure of study be experienced by underfed children? How can hungry children be able, though ever so willing, to follow the instruction? The brain, like any other organ, refuses to work when food is withheld. Memory and thought are dulled, fatigue increases. How can a poorly nourished child accomplish a task intended for a normal child! How easily the teacher misjudges inertia of the brain caused by a bodily condition, though the child does perhaps as much as he can!

The impoverished, anaemic child suffers much more from the changes of the weather than a healthy child. He finds no pleasure in play or gymnastics; his muscles are too weak; bodily exercises are for him not a means to develop and strengthen the body, they merely consume the scanty nutrient material of his blood. And so the impoverished child, having a hard struggle for existence before him, leaves the school with an inferior preparation as compared with other children. He brings less knowledge with him into life, is mentally weaker, he feels his unfavorable social position and carries the seed of discontent and bitterness in him. No loving tie attaches him to the family, no pleasant thought lives in his memory. Morbidity and mor-

tality are doubtless much larger among these children, and every wasting disease more dangerous to them. Many chronic diseases are acquired in this period of life.

From this source of an unhygienic youth, a great army of weaklings is thrown upon the state, who as workers do not count, and who have to be discarded at the military recruiting office. It is of vital interest to the state, therefore, to prevent these forms of degeneration, the lowering of physical qualities which are especially observed among the young people in great cities and in industrial districts. It is no more than self-preservation for the state to lend its aid in combating these conditions.

It is not always insufficient nutrition alone which leads to poor bodily development among school children. In many cases it is an irrational way of feeding the children. Instead of being fed with a good cheap breakfast, they are given useless beverages such as coffee and its substitutes. Frequently the needs of the body of the child are not considered; milk as a food is early abandoned, and the child is put on a diet suitable for adults. Many children who have weak stomachs do not thrive on a diet made up exclusively of cold foods; they do not eat enough, and so lose strength. For many of the conditions mentioned, poverty cannot be held responsible; they are chargeable to carelessness and ignorance on the part of the mother and of the family.

In other cases social factors play a chief rôle; the difficulties are not directly due to insufficient nutrition. The effects of poor nutrition are rendered more severe because the food requirements are unnecessarily increased. Thus the housing question, for instance, has its importance in this connection. Very often poorer families have to get along with unheated rooms. Continued cold increases the food requirements of the children. The same may be said with regard to insufficient clothing. In many cases, boys and girls have to do hard work at home and do not get a corresponding increase of food. It has also been observed that children who spend many hours on the street suffer a loss of bodily strength from want of proper care. From what has been said it is clear that not all forms of deterioration of the bodily constitution are due to insufficient nutrition in the narrow sense.

As a practical means to prevent the evil effects of poor nutrition, we began years ago to feed the children at school. This was done in various ways in different parts of Germany and in other countries. In some places a breakfast is furnished, in others a second breakfast.

In other cases there is a demand for a warm meal at noon, and sometimes also for a lunch in the middle of the afternoon. There is no doubt that the desired purpose, the improvement of nutrition, is accomplished by these means, that thousands of children are thus saved from a joyless youth and grow up healthy members of society.

By feeding the children at school, however, our task is not completed. Besides feeding children in the schools it is absolutely necessary to supervise and care for the children in "day" nurseries (Kinderorte). These institutions are a great blessing. Here much can be done for the hygienic and ethical good of children who do not see their parents until late in the evening. In these day nurseries, the children prepare their lessons, learn various forms of handwork, and receive bodily and mental care.

A great disadvantage of feeding the children at public expense is the abuse of such a benefit where the system is handled in a lavish way. We know from experience that poverty is frequently not the reason why children are sent to school without breakfasts. Carelessness of the parents, a disorderly household, and late rising, are often to blame for these conditions. As to the want of a meal at noon, the cause is frequently found in the fact that the mother, or both parents work outside the home. When husband and wife go to their factory work in the morning, the children, of course, cannot have a warm meal at noon, though under favorable circumstances they are given a couple of sandwiches. In such cases, too, it is not always poverty which causes poor nutrition of the children. From all these cases we must, of course, set apart those in which we find real indigence and poverty which is not the fault of the parents. It is very difficult to decide, in some cases whether or not the parents are at fault.

Quite correct is the idea expressed in the state regulations of England and Wales concerning the feeding of school children, namely, that the children are to be fed where the necessity is apparent, but that the expenses are to be borne by the parents if it is found that they are able to bear them. This is a way by which a reform may be brought about, desirable from the standpoint of both hygiene and physiology. We must have a healthy race, and we must apply remedies wherever evil conditions are found, no matter how such conditions may have arisen. The ways and means of feeding children at school are after all subordinate to the actual need of food.

If it has been found that in the case of a child insufficiently nourished it is the task of the authorities to furnish the food which is want-

ing, how should we feed the children? Sometimes the first and second breakfasts must be furnished, sometimes dinner or supper. But we must always remember especially where the noon meal is wanting, that two tasks are to be accomplished:

(1) The impoverished child must be raised to the normal weight which corresponds to its size, i.e., the body must be put in a healthy condition.

(2) Sufficient food must be furnished to keep the child at his normal weight.

From what has been said it is clear that the food must be plentiful, and must not be based on the weight of an impoverished child, for this weight must improve.

The food requirements at the school age have been sufficiently well established. We may assume 24 kg. as the average weight of boys and girls between six and eleven years. For children of this size 1482 (in round numbers 1500) calories are generally sufficient. Impoverished children who weigh less may be able to reach the normal weight if they receive the nourishment mentioned above. But no harm is done if we furnish them a little more food, enabling them to reach the normal weight more quickly.

Of importance is also the combination of food materials. For the age mentioned above I consider the following amounts sufficient, assuming that a large part of the proteid is of animal origin and that milk forms a part of the diet:

Proteid.....	64
Fat.....	50
Carbohydrates.....	187

On this basis we can supply a breakfast or a noon meal, while the supper is left to the family. From some practical cases I estimate the supper of a poorly nourished child in round numbers at 358 calories with 15 grams proteid, 12 grams fat, and 45 grams carbohydrates. The portion which remains after deducting this supper, and which must eventually be covered by the feeding at school, I divide in the following manner:

(A) For the first and second breakfast together: 13 grams proteid, 12 grams fat, 37 grams carbohydrates = 317 calories.

(B) For the noon and evening meal together: 36 grams proteid, 26 grams fat, 104 grams carbohydrates = 816 calories. The marked accentuation of the noon meal serves as a safety factor with regard to

the evening meal, which will often be very scanty. If we consider what sums are spent for other hygienic purposes, water supply, sewerage, etc., the sums spent for feeding school children are exceedingly small.

It would doubtless be desirable to study the food conditions in the various countries, of young people who have left school, for it is certain that we would find many deficiencies at this period of life, which are the more important as the time of puberty, and the years immediately following, are of vital significance in the development of a healthy body.

The nutrition of the great mass of the people is a question of the highest importance deserving far more attention than it has hitherto received. All the great countries ought to have a central authority, a food commission, which should concern itself exclusively with the far-reaching questions of the well-being of the people. The material, as it lies before us today, is very incomplete, but suffices to indicate the main lines of useful work. The nutrition of the masses has so far been mostly studied with regard to political economy and according to methods and view points which do not always withstand the tests of the physiology of nutrition. Only by means of the physiology of nutrition is it possible to carry on exact research.

The nutrition of the masses is to us a problem which may be approached and improved from many different sides. It is necessary that not only the hygienists, in the narrower sense, take up the struggle for betterment, but that also the great army of men, who are truly humane in their hearts, shall take their places beside us. The battle which we have to carry on is not only against unavoidable and natural difficulties; we must not forget that human society includes many elements, unwilling to make the least concession to a humanitarian movement, persons whose prosperity is selfishly held superior to the welfare of their neighbors, and who will oppose such a movement with all the means at their command. Let us hope that our opponents will, at the last, rejoice with us in a triumph of the Humane Idea.

A COURSE IN HOUSEHOLD ECONOMICS.¹

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS, PH.D.

Teachers College, Columbia University.

Two courses in household economics offered to college students, one for undergraduates and one for graduates, are the basis of the following paper. These courses, which are given in a school with highly differentiated departments, each concerned with special aspects of household science, have the purpose of presenting certain problems of common concern to students in all these departments. They are based on the idea that with our tendency to specialize instruction upon this or that phase of the home, there is urgent need for one or more centralizing courses upon the home itself—a kind of regulative instruction which shall treat of the household as a whole, offering standards and suggesting values, both as to the inner organization of the household and as to its external relations. It is this purpose of giving their compass points to students of the household, whether they be intending teachers, home managers, or commercial workers, that the courses in household economics try to serve.

While called "Household Economics," the instruction is not an attempt simply to find illustration for the laws and principles of general economic science in the field of the household; it rather examines the general foundations of household economy, both as regards its own structure, and its relations to other social institutions, and especially as regards the economic basis of income and expenditure upon which the household exists.

The first course in household economics, an elective course consisting of 30 one-hour periods, opens with a brief study of fundamental ideas in general economics—the economic world and man's place in it as one seeking satisfactions by the complementary processes of production and consumption; the characteristics of the economic man as contrasted with the social debtor; the general principles of economic consumption, since this is of peculiar interest to woman, and

¹ Presented at the annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Boston, December 31, 1912.

the idea of standards of living and the home's intimate concern with such standards, since they determine home conditions; finally, this introductory glimpse into the economic world (to which four or five sessions only are devoted), is summarized by a study of Dr. Devine's classic essay, "The Economic Function of Woman," with its emphasis upon the significance of the home and the home woman's part in the wider social economy.

One may enquire whether there should not be substituted for this brief introduction, the typical freshman college course in general economics, three hours per week for a year. There is no question but that such a prerequisite course would be desirable and ultimately it may be required, but with the time available at present it would mean that few students in our school could take this general course on the household. It may be said, too, in justification, that a general study of the household may be undertaken which, without using involved economic terminology, may be true to the general economic point-of-view; namely, an enquiry as to the general methods whereby man carries on social activities, whether a factory, a bank, or a home, undertaken and consciously directed to satisfy human needs.

The course itself falls into two main parts, a study of the purposes or functions of the household, and a study of the means whereby these purposes find expression through family income and its expenditure. Purpose, income, and expenditure form, therefore, successive divisions of study.

The first division raises the question—What is a home or household, both in its internal organization and its outer relations? It is seen to be a social institution employing certain material agencies, the house, with its varied furnishings and equipment, its provision of food and clothing, and including certain human members, the parents, children, possibly other relatives and dependents, the occasional guest, and employed workers; the household is in relations of interdependence with other social institutions, the state itself, industry, the church, the school, and the municipality; and the idea of what a household is and what ends it should serve, varies from age to age as new functions develop, or old responsibilities pass from one institution to another. This shifting process is of vital concern to society; and the Home Economist must needs find his highest opportunity for service as guardian of the household's proper social obligations, or rather as an interpreter of these to the upgrowing generation. A backward glance at the history of the household is taken, especially

at the changes wrought by the industrial revolution in removing industry from home to factory and the probable outcome of the present changes in the household itself. The various types of single-family households are distinguished, each fitted to its particular purpose, the rural, the suburban, the city home, and institutional types of complete or partial households, such as the restaurant, the lunch room, the working girl's home, the dormitory, the hospital which have differentiated from the original single-family household, or from some one of its activities. The activities of the usual household are examined and classified and proper emphasis placed upon those concerned with the personal relations of the household and its functions as a welfare institution, rather than those which concern mere material services as of food and clothing and the aspects of the household as a business undertaking. The fundamental and essential character of personal relationship, in the constitution of the home, is made plain.

The relation of the household to various other social institutions is in turn discussed. First, as to industry: the effect of the household upon industry in furnishing the motive to work, in maintaining efficiency of workers, and in raising industrial standards; the effect of industry upon the household through furnishing more varied consumption goods, through establishing new standards for the work done within the home, and especially through the transfer of work from the household to outside industry, and the aids and hindrances to this transfer; the irreducible minimum of work which must be done at home; the outcome—industrialization of housework, humanization of industry, and personalization of the home. Next, the household and the state—laws affecting women, children, property and inheritance, suffrage, socialism. The household and the municipality—the latter's services for the home, and possible extensions of public utilities, regulations affecting the household, and the home woman and municipal housekeeping. Other social institutions are considered, as church, school, and fraternal organizations, in their division of function with the home, and the home emerges again as furnishing for the personal life its organizing and distributing center. Summarizing, one may say that this first division of study aims at giving a standard idea of what a home is, what functions it performs, how it is interrelated with various other social institutions which aid it; how various types of households, each ideal to its situation and function, may exist because of varying adjustments made with other social institutions; and finally how seemingly destructive changes may take place through

which the home may still pass unharmed, since its essential characteristics are those which concern the personal relations of its members.

The second division of the course concerns the economic basis of these household purposes, which may be expressed in term of household income and expenditure.

Income in the household is seen to depend not only upon money income, as from wages or salary, or possibly from investments, but quite as well, and always and essentially so, upon the value of the unpaid productive work of the housewife and other members of the household; and always, too, upon use income or the usufruct of house and furnishings, equipment, and all permanent consumers goods found there. The income value of productive housework, an obvious idea when one considers it, is an important conception since it dignifies the toil of the housewife in the eyes of her family and what is often more important, in her own eyes. A passing glance is given at industrial conditions which affect wages—lack of vocational education, irregularity in employment, industrial accidents and disease, and other controllable conditions for which the home as a center for educating opinion is partly responsible, as well as malnutrition and insanitary living for which the home is directly responsible. The more intimate questions of sweated home-work, of child-labor and other supplementary wage-earning, and of desirable home-work, or possible outside work, for the leisure home woman, are each considered. Women, wage-earning vocations, and home are seen to form a complicated triangular problem, requiring, in this transition stage, a thoughtful, individual adjustment which gives due preëminence to social welfare. The needed development of desirable supplementary occupations for the home woman in country and city is pointed out.

Expenditure, or use made of the household income, is the next general topic in the course, occupying somewhat over one half the time. It is treated in three topics: Principles which should guide in the use of household income, then the application of these principles, first, in the varied divisions of household expenditures, and finally, in savings and investment. There is added a discussion of the methods and mechanism of financial records and accounts for the household.

The household is the ultimate agency in the distribution of economic wealth to individuals; what the wage-earner really secures and what the wife and children secure, depend upon the efficiency with which the household turns the wage-income into economic goods, and, at the same time, supplements it, often to a doubled value, by the income-

equivalent arising from housework. What ideas should guide in the use of money for the household? Is health, education, display, the child, the adult, the prime factor in the decision? The former problem of purposes in homemaking reappears. Use of wealth may be *self-regarding* or *other-regarding* and "visible consumption" and "competition in consumption" are facts of significance; consumption may be individualistic or may be socialized for the family group, or, as we are beginning to see, may be undertaken by community groups for all their members. Money measures life, or better, use of money determines life, not only for the user, but through consumer's choice it determines the status of all producers—so that social responsibility for wealth extends from large fortunes to the last penny in the humblest family budget. Proper distribution of incomes requires: that all needs of the household be met proportionately, so that the last dollar spent on every object may bring an equivalent satisfaction; that all persons in the group receive proportionate benefits; and that future as well as present needs be provided for by savings and investment, and that thus all financial emergencies and unforeseen contingencies, as sickness, interruptions to employment, and death, which come in the life history of the normal household, may by foresight be provided against. Some statistical studies of household expenditures are made and the significance of Engel's laws of consumption and modifications of them pointed out. Proper distribution can only be achieved by a budget system of allowances, determining in advance the amounts to be spent for various objects of expenditure, and intended to serve as a guide in actual expenditures. The money income is properly a common family purse from which budget allowances are made for various objects of group and individual expenditure, as rent, food, running expenses, clothing and personal expenses. As productive work has progressively left the household, the spending of money and the relation of household and market, have become increasingly important factors—trained intelligence in buying, market laws, regulation and inspection, guarantee labels, increased efficiency in market organization, and professional and coöperative buying, have important possibilities for the household. That money income should by proper choices and efficient management be transmuted into those economic goods which will most adequately satisfy human need and insure the household the best possible level of living is the fundamental principle of income use. This principle is applied successively to different items of household expenditure and then to savings and investment.

Under each item of expense, shelter, food, clothing, operating expenses, elective or personal expenditures, an attempt is made to state what may be called the standards for the particular fields—to indicate the general relations of the particular expenditures to the life of the household, and the limits in money expenditure both as to absolute amounts and as to percentages of the total budget. Such special factors as the following also arise in considering the different budget items.

Shelter.—The house as determining the home; ownership versus rental; methods of purchase; the widening scope of the rental contract; housing standards for country, suburb, and city, and the increasing social control of housing; measurement of housing by the house score-card.

Food.—Food costs, a casual sequence from farm to dining room, with varied possibilities of economy; the transfer of food preparation outside the household versus home cooking—cost accounting to include not only materials and fuel, but labor, equipment, rental, and other costs.

Clothing.—Costs, including laundry, cleaning, repair, storage, a field ready for more complete industrialization; proposed legal standards for textile fabrics; fashion and clothing costs.

Operating expenses.—House care, order and cleaning; heating and lighting in relation to living; machinery and labor-saving equipment in the house—its tardy entry into this non-competitive field; household service as a labor problem; the further transfer of housework to outside industry, to the municipality, and to possible coöperative enterprises.

Elective or personal expenditures.—The use of money for progressive personal development of adults, as well as for education of children, is the ideal; recreation, travel, philanthropy, civic relations, refinements of life—as reflected in expenditures, but also in house furnishings and appointments and in employment of leisure—the art of right living; children—a liability or an asset, costs; the aged and dependent relatives; old age as a financial problem. Sickness costs—a penalty for poorly-balanced budgets; transfer of sickness costs to community and industry in prevention costs; hospital care of sick—rural and urban; death and burial costs—suggested municipal supervision.

Saving is controlled by a standard similar to that for expenditure—that the dollar saved shall confer ultimately a satisfaction at least as

great as the dollar spent today. Such special topics as the following are treated: Thrift and its significance in financial security and unbroken self-dependence for the family; methods of saving and saving institutions; types of insurance of interest to the household, life, accident, fire, title insurance; the movement for accident compensation laws and industrial pensions, their significance and limitations; tentative proposals for state insurance; banks and banking services; investments of surpluses from household income, in real estate, in investment bonds; types of investment, relative security and rates of return.

As a final topic under expenditures, simple methods of household records and accounts are presented; desirable records of family and personal history; records of expenditure for permanent property, i.e., capital accounts; the control of current expenditures by a budget of allowances for various purposes; a record system of cash book and ledger; the simplified form of combined cash-book and journal giving classified records by means of a single entry; summaries by week, month, and year, in money amounts and in percentage expenditures; inventories of household goods, clothing, and property, and records of depreciation and renewal; cash and credit transactions; banking relations, check accounts, savings accounts; vouchers; records of income-yielding investments; the housekeeper's desk—files, card-catalogs, records. These are some of the topics presented. These matters of accounts and records, at present included here, may well be transferred in time to a special course dealing exclusively with household and institution accounts.

The elementary course closes with a summary that re-emphasizes the essentially personal character of the household; it is an institution for personal living and all its materials and processes are subordinated to this high purpose. The successful house manager is rather a homemaker; and though such changes may come in the productive activities of the household as to many now seem destructive of home life, we may rest assured that its personal resources will not decrease, but will widen and deepen through all the future.

One may add but a note as to possibilities of graduate study, of research and investigation in such a field as has been outlined above. A graduate course in household economics has been offered for two hours each week for a year, providing instruction by lectures, but especially affording opportunity for individual and coöperative research. Scarcely a topic has been mentioned in the elementary course that does not present a lure for fascinating inquiry and bear on human

action at a most significant point in our social economy. During the past two years some of the topics considered in the graduate course have been: the sources of our ideas on household economy, in ancient and mediaeval classics, and the beginnings of this discipline in modern writers; first, the widening interest among the economists from Adam Smith who counted housework as unproductive, to Edward Devine who related household economy to world economy; and second our own worthy record of the Home Economists from Benjamin Thompson (Count Rumford) through Emma Willard and Catherine Beecher, to Ellen Richards and W. O. Atwater of our own time. The subject of household budgets and expenditures has been examined in detail, for historical material and for practical issues; and plans for the present year include a study of household service and, what is more important for the average family, the growing dependence of the home upon industry as the latter is increasingly fitted to serve the home. Other topics for research have been: marketing, institutional laundries, practice fields in household administration, coöperation, household waste, and efficiency in housework. Industrial studies of vocations open to home women, of industries suitable for development at home, of the sanitary control of the industries that especially serve the home, are most necessary. Here in applied economics are promising fields of research which may well attract some interested in equipping themselves for higher teaching.

The subject of household economics, as was said in the beginning, may properly be considered a central course in our collegiate and higher curricula in household science. It offers a group of topics of as much concern to man as to women and deserving the best attention of both.

For high schools and elementary schools it is a subject which properly organized in the future may well be offered to boys and girls alike and thus aid in endowing each unit of the population with the *household mind*; that is, with those appreciations and sentiments—at basis valuations and convictions—whereby the young adult may in due time take his place in a family group of his own and run the normal human experience of household living and in it find resources for personal development.

SOME DATA REGARDING FOOD SUPPLY AND SALE IN A MEN'S CLUB.¹

C. F. LANGWORTHY.

United States Department of Agriculture.

The sale of food in clubs in the grill or café is almost always attended by a loss, particularly when service, fuel, light, laundry, and other fixed charges such as the due proportion of the investments represented by the club house, are taken into account. One reason for this deficit is that food is commonly sold to members at a somewhat lower cost than would be charged in a hotel or restaurant for the same foods and surroundings. The deficit is met from the general funds of the club, of which the chief item is the annual dues paid by members. This is a reasonable arrangement, the grill or café privilege like the use of reading room, stationery, etc., being one of the advantages of club membership received in return for annual dues. If the deficit from the sale of food is very large it is natural that it should excite comment. Good management demands that the income from the sale of food should at least equal the expenditures for raw materials. If it does more than this under usual conditions, it is evident that the management has been good and the amount of business done relatively large. The difference between income and expenditure for the café, as shown by the system of accounting followed, was so great in a club for men in an eastern city that a special study of conditions was made with a view to determining the causes and suggesting remedies.

The problems which are presented in a club are much the same as those in a public institution, boarding house, restaurant, or in fact any other place where a careful account is kept of income and expenditures with reference to food, the differences being in degree rather than in kind. It seemed therefore that some of the data recorded in the study of club conditions referred to might prove of interest.

The restaurant in this club has been very carefully managed, a great deal of attention being paid to cleanliness and to the selection, preparation, and service of foods, and cleanliness and care are usually

¹ Presented at the Lake Placid Meeting of the Administration Section of the American Home Economics Association, June, 1912.

more costly than the reverse. The dining room has been under the direct charge of an experienced woman who has under her a kitchen staff of cook, assistant cook, and kitchen helper, and three or four waiters and a houseman, these servants all being colored men. Table d'hôte meals are served and a limited à la carte service is also provided. The charges for table d'hôte meals are: Breakfast, 35 cents; luncheon, 40 cents; and dinner, 60 cents. Combination breakfasts of varying prices can be procured also, but the regular breakfast at 35 cents, which varies from day to day, is the most popular.

Sample menus of the breakfasts served at 35 cents:

Bananas or Cereal	Tangerines or Cereal
Chipped Beef in Cream on Toast	Omelette with Bacon
French Fried Potatoes	Baked Potatoes
Toast, Rolls	Toast, Rolls
Coffee, Tea, Cocoa	Coffee, Tea, Cocoa

The luncheon is simple, varying from day to day, the intention being to provide an inexpensive meat dish with appropriate vegetables and a simple dessert, so adjusting the meal that the total cost of supplies does not exceed a reasonable maximum.

Sample luncheon menus:

English Beef Pie	Cold Boiled Ham
Paris Potatoes	German Fried Potatoes
Wheat Muffins	Corn Bread
Lettuce	Lettuce
Peaches [Canned]	Sliced Pineapple

Dinner consists of soup, meat with appropriate vegetables, salad and dessert, the meats selected being usually the better cuts, with poultry twice a week and fish on Friday. With some of the cheaper meats, such as corned beef, an alternative meat course, either steak or chops, is usually offered without extra charge and this custom is also followed with certain other meats not generally relished by the patrons.

Sample menus which show the character of the dinners:

Consommé Vermicelli	Tomato Soup
Fried Chicken, Brown Gravy	Choice: New England Boiled Dinner
Mashed Potatoes	or Broiled Chops
Creamed Corn	Buttered Potatoes
Lettuce	String Beans
Vanilla Ice Cream	Beets
Coffee	Lettuce
	Chocolate Éclairs
	Coffee

At all meals an extra charge is supposed to be made for additional or for substitute orders except where offered in the menu.

The greatest patronage of the club grill is during the summer and the smallest during December and January. A fair average in summer has been 18 to 25 for breakfast, 12 to 15 for luncheon, and 30 to 50 for dinner.

Beside the regular meals served in the café, sandwiches and other simple refreshments are supplied at any time members choose to order them, and simple refreshments are provided, the prices which have been charged being moderate, for smokers or other meetings such as are frequently held in one of the club rooms reserved for this purpose. Furthermore, a very simple buffet supper is provided without charge for members on "club night," which would average about three evenings a month during the winter season.

An examination of the monthly reports made to the club showed that usually the income received from the café was less than the cost of the foods purchased and one of the objects of the study was to determine whether this was a matter of bookkeeping and due to a faulty distribution of charges, or whether it was due to charging too low prices for meals, or to some other cause. The following statement for December, 1911, has been selected as a fair average illustration of conditions which prevailed, as shown by the accounts rendered.

During this month the expenditures for groceries and other supplies and for wages and other items pertaining to the preparation and service of food were as follows:

Food supplies used.....	\$863.22
Wages.....	262.75
Fixed charges:	
Lights.....	28.00
Fuel.....	30.50
Laundry.....	25.95
	<hr/>
Total.....	\$1210.42

During the same period the receipts as they appeared in the statement to the club were as follows:

Meals served guests in dining room.....	\$768.19
Credit for general housekeeping supplies (matches, brooms, etc.).....	2.36
Credit for food supplies issued to one of the departments.....	15.80
Food materials supplied for club entertainments.....	11.30
Board of 4 employees (3 clerks and 1 other helper).....	60.00
Food served at smokers and similar entertainments.....	27.55
	<hr/>
Total.....	\$885.20

During the month breakfasts served to guests numbered 332, luncheons 402, and dinners 740, a total of 1474 meals. It may be assumed that the food provided for smokers and similar special occasions was equivalent to 123 meals, this representing the number of persons served, making a total of 1597 meals.

An examination of this statement of expense and returns shows that the distribution of debit and credit items is not reasonable. For instance, the credit item for the board of 4 employees is at the rate of 50 cents per day for an average month of 30 days, or \$15 per month, instead of \$1.35 per day which a club member would be charged, manifestly an error of judgment, since the employees received the same food as the club members and under the same conditions of service except that their meals were served in a private dining room. The financial statement takes no account whatever of 3 meals per day served to the housekeeper and 2 meals per day served to her son (an arrangement which was made when the housekeepers' salary was agreed on) which would amount to a total of 155 meals for the month of 31 days, which is equivalent to 52 days for 1 person. These meals, like those of the 4 other club employees, were the same as those furnished to club members and certainly have a value greater than that assigned in the statement rendered.

Furthermore, no account was taken of 372 meals furnished during the month to the 3 men in the kitchen and to the house man, or of the 341 meals served during the month to 4 colored servants in the dining room (one of whom was at the club for only 2 meals per day), a total of 713 meals, which is equivalent to 1 man for 238 days. It is apparent that the failure to make such accounting was due to the belief that it should not be done since no special food was provided for the servants, who were expected to make their meals from what remained over after the club members and club employees had been served. This is a common fallacy in considering food problems. Making all allowance for the fact that the servants received the tougher portions of meat (frequently cooked in special dishes for them) and often did not get as large a variety as the club members owing to the fact that no attempt was made to provide expensive desserts in quantity sufficient to supply them; nevertheless it is true that the food which they ate cost the club the same price per pound as that eaten by club members, and much smaller quantities would have been required per month if no meals were served to servants.

The failure to include a credit item for the housekeeper (and her

son) is due to the same sort of fallacy, namely, that a person who prepares food is entitled to board without charge.

Whether or not the saving in food supplies would be offset by the increased wages which would have to be paid if no board were given to employees and servants is another question; but it is worthy of note that there is a growing tendency in hotels to pay higher wages and not board employees.

The factor selected for estimating the board of all employees served in the small dining room with the same food as the members, should at least be large enough to cover the cost of the food. Dividing the total expenditure under consideration for food supply for the month, \$863, by 1597 (the estimated number of meals served to members only, including those served at smokers) gives 54 cents as the average cost of food per man per meal, or \$1.62 per man per day. The total expenditure for food, \$863, divided by 2155 (the estimated number of meals served to members, office staff, housekeeper and her son) gives 40 cents per person per meal, or \$1.20 per person per day. Dividing the total expenditure, \$863, by 2868 (the total number of meals served to members and all employees and servants) gives 30 cents as the average cost of food per meal. It is believed that 40 cents per person per meal is the fairer value for use in calculating the credit item for the board of club employees served in the small dining room. If this is done, the credit item for board of 4 employees (men) for 31 days each would be \$148.80; and for the housekeeper and her son (estimated as equivalent to 1 person for 52 days) would be \$62.40.

Taking into account the fact that the kitchen and dining room staff do not receive as attractive food as the office employees and that no attempt is made to serve it under the same conditions, a lower value should be assigned to it in accounting and it has been assumed that a fair value would be one-half of that assigned to the board of office employees, or 60 cents per employee per day. The board of employees was calculated as equivalent to 1 man for 238 days, and using the above value, the credit item should be \$142.80.

If in the month under consideration credit items were made on the basis of the figures suggested, the total credit would be \$1179.20 instead of \$885.20 which would show a loss of only \$31.22 instead of \$325.22, as shown by the system of accounting followed.

The above calculations are based on food supplies only. Other calculations based on supplies, service, and fixed charges, can readily be made and including these factors would increase the estimated cost of board and so increase the credit items still further. It is believed,

however, that the calculations given are sufficient to show clearly that the café was in a much better financial condition than was indicated by the system of accounting which was followed.

An obvious way of actually increasing the income of the café would be to increase the price of meals and this is a question which should always receive careful consideration under similar circumstances. A by no means inconsiderable increase in income is frequently possible if a charge is always insisted on for substitute or extra orders or for any other special item, such a change being justified by the general principle "an extra charge for a special service."

Many problems arise in considering hotel, restaurant, and institution dietetics, in which it is interesting to note the cost of service and the fixed charge item per man per meal, and per man per day. The total item for wages and fixed charges in the month under consideration was \$347.20. Dividing this by 1597 (the total number of meals served to members only, including those served at smokers, gives 22 cents per man per meal, or 66 cents per man per day, as the cost of service. Dividing \$347 by 2155 (the total number of meals served the members, office staff, housekeeper and her son) gives 16 cents per person per meal, or 48 cents per person per day.

Similar calculations for service only would be \$262.75 divided by 2155, or 12 cents per person per meal; and for fixed charges only, \$84.45 divided by 2155, or 4 cents per person per meal. Of course it would be unfair to draw sweeping generalizations regarding cost of preparation and service of food from so limited observations but the figures given above are believed to be fair averages for the club under consideration and seem worth recording as of general interest, since comparatively limited data are available regarding such items of cost.

As has been said above, in this club a great deal of food is sold outside the dining room. The rates charged for food supplied for smokers and other special meetings, etc., were designed to include a small profit but have been based on the cost of materials only. Obviously they should include the cost of service required for preparation and a fixed charge item also. To obtain an idea of the cost of labor per hour, the total sum expended for labor for a month of 31 days, \$262.75 was divided by 1984 (the total hours of labor of the 8 employees for a month of 31 days of 8 hours each) which gives 13 cents. In the same way, the fixed charge item of \$84.45 divided by 372 (the total "fixed charge hours" in 31 days of 12 hours each—the average time the fires are kept up and lights required) gives 23 cents as the "fixed-charge-per-hour" value.

The table below shows the cost of materials, labor, fixed charges, and total cost for a number of foods sold at entertainments at the club, with the old selling price, and the proposed selling price which would take into account the labor and fixed charges as well as the cost of food and allow for a fair profit.

In calculating the data in the table, it has been assumed on the basis of observations made by club employees that the labor in procuring and preparing different articles represented: Creamed oysters per gallon, $\frac{1}{2}$ hour; fried oysters per dozen, 40 minutes; fruit salad per gallon, 1 hour; potato salad per gallon, 40 minutes; chicken salad per gallon, 2 hours; mixed sandwiches per dozen, 20 minutes; cocoa per quart, $\frac{1}{4}$ hour; and coffee per gallon, $\frac{1}{4}$ hour. With labor valued at 13 cents per hour, the cost of procuring and preparing foods can be readily calculated.

It would seem fair to consider the fixed charge item (fuel, lights, and laundry) for the time fire and light are required to prepare the food. Assuming that only one thing is prepared at a time, which is certainly the case with some of the items, the average time fire, light, and laundry work are needed for each article was estimated to be as follows: Creamed oysters per gallon, $\frac{1}{4}$ hour; fried oysters per dozen, $\frac{1}{2}$ hour; fruit salad per gallon, $\frac{1}{4}$ hour; potato salad per gallon, $\frac{1}{2}$ hour; chicken salad per gallon, $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours; mixed sandwiches per dozen, $\frac{1}{4}$ hour; cocoa per quart, 10 minutes; and coffee per gallon, 10 minutes. All such values are at best only approximate, but the estimates are based upon careful consideration of the requirements for the work.

As stated above, the estimated fixed charge value per hour is 23 cents. From this and the time required for preparation, the fixed charge item for the different food materials can be calculated.

Cost and selling price of foods for entertainments at club.

FOODS.	COST.				OLD SELLING PRICE.	PROPOSED SELLING PRICE.
	Materials.	Labor.	Fixed charges.	Total.		
Creamed oysters, per gal.	\$1.25	\$0.07	\$0.06	\$1.38	\$4.00	\$4.00
Fried oysters, per doz.	0.25	0.09	0.11	0.45	0.35	0.50
Fruit salad, per gal.	2.25	0.13	0.06	2.44	4.00	4.00
Potato salad, per gal.	1.00	0.09	0.11	1.20	2.00	2.25
Chicken salad, per gal.	2.50	0.26	0.34	3.10	5.00	5.00
Mixed sandwiches, per doz.	0.45	0.04	0.06	0.55	0.60	0.80
Cocoa, per quart.	0.20	0.03	0.04	0.27	0.50	0.50
Coffee, per gal.	0.35	0.03	0.04	0.42	1.00	1.00

A similar table follows which gives a list of foods served to order at any time with the prices which have been charged on the basis of cost of materials only, and the proposed prices which take into account labor and "fixed charges" also.

Foods served to order outside of dining room

ARTICLES.	OLD SELLING PRICE.	PROPOSED SELLING PRICE.
	<i>cents</i>	<i>cents</i>
Pot of coffee.....	10	15
Cup of coffee.....	10	10
Pot of tea.....	10	15
Cup of tea.....	10	10
Pot of cocoa.....	10	15
Cup of cocoa.....	10	10
Bread and butter sandwich.....	10	15
Roast beef sandwich.....	15	15
Chicken sandwich.....	20	20
Club sandwich.....	25	30
Hot buttered toast.....	10	15
Pot of tea or glass iced tea with bread and butter sandwich or buttered toast.....		25

If the price charged for articles served at any time to order, and of those served at smokers and other similar entertainments, be advanced as indicated to include the cost of preparation and a proportionate amount of "fixed charges," as well as the cost of materials and a fair profit, the restaurant income obviously would be increased.

It might be argued that the cost of service and "fixed charges for these items should be borne by the club. But any such organization wishes its restaurant to be as near self-supporting as possible, so must make legitimate charges. It is possible to reduce to a minimum the expenses for service and "fixed charges" for meals that can be definitely planned for some time in advance. In the case of the occasional service of food outside the café, such regularity of arrangement cannot be made; the service is extra, and should be covered by the prices charged.

CONCLUSIONS.

From the study of club conditions, methods and system of accounting, a number of conclusions were drawn and suggestions made.

The necessity for including a fair allowance for labor and fixed charges in determining the price of foods sold outside the café has

already been mentioned. This is an important matter and one which must be calculated for any given club or other institution, since available data seem too limited for drawing general averages which can be used.

The importance of assigning fair credit values for the board of employees and servants has also been spoken of and a method of estimating such values suggested.

As regards the general problem of increasing the revenue from the café, there are a number of possibilities the most obvious being increase in prices charged for meals. The present minimum charge for breakfast is low and might reasonably be increased to 40 cents. When all circumstances are taken into account there are reasons for believing that the charges for luncheon and dinner, namely, 40 and 60 cents, respectively, should not be increased.

If a simpler and less expensive luncheon or dinner is desired by anyone it should be ordered *à la carte*, and the prices charged should be such as would include preparation, service and fixed charges as well as cost of materials. Full charge should be made for substitute and extra orders or for any other departure from the regular meals. This is justifiable since the regular meals can be arranged for in advance, whereas departures from the regular plan involve extra service and usually different materials, and for this there should be an extra charge.

If the cost of the meals could be diminished while the rates remain the same, the income would be obviously larger. Many times reduction is possible without lessening the palatability of the meal. For instance, expenses can often be diminished by the more frequent use of cheaper cuts of meat served in palatable ways, such as beef *à la mode* instead of an expensive roast. The whole purpose of such a change would of course be lost if the club member who did not happen to fancy such a dish were allowed to select a substitute without extra charge. The cost of dinner might also be diminished by omitting some item, for instance, salad, or by lessening the number of vegetables. Serving two vegetables besides potato and omitting salad, or serving a salad, and one vegetable besides potato instead of the present custom of a salad and two vegetables besides potato, would effect a saving and change the character of the menu so little that the change would probably cause no comment.

A possible plan for dinner would be the division of the menu into "fixed portion" and "extras." For instance, meat, potato, one or

two vegetables, bread, butter, and coffee might constitute the fixed item, for which a charge of 55 cents could be made. Soup, salad and dessert could be "extra," at 10 cents per item. Coffee might be included at 10 cents per cup in the "extra item" group instead of in the "fixed portion" and served in the dining room or elsewhere.

It would also be possible to serve an entire dinner à la carte and to charge prices for individual items which would insure a return equal to at least the cost of the food. This plan involves so many factors that it cannot now be discussed at length, but one or two points may be noted. It is relatively expensive with a small equipment and a limited number of patrons to serve any fresh vegetables other than potato owing to the large loss from "left-overs." Canned vegetables which can be kept in stock are not very generally relished if used too frequently. The result is that patrons are inclined to select meals with very little vegetable food except bread, which is undesirable from the standpoint of dietetics, rather varied meals being considered the more satisfactory.

The club studied has always served meals of good quality, wholesome, and well arranged. A great deal of attention has been paid to "balancing" the meals from the standpoint of dietetics, in order that they might be reasonable physiologically, and wholesome as well as palatable. Great attention has been paid to cleanliness in the preparation and service of food. This means that one of the great factors of hygiene and health has been given due consideration and this is well worth while. Guarding the health of club members in all that concerns the food, ice, water, etc., served in the club is worth time, thought, and money. A club with a membership selected from the educated and thoughtful may well lay stress on such matters, and should carefully consider all sides of the question before making any change which would lessen expenses but, at the same time, lower standards.

COMMERCIAL LAUNDRIES IN NEW YORK CITY.¹

WILLIAM C. ROGERS.

Deputy Commissioner of Labor, State of New York.

There are seven classes of commercial laundries in New York City, some of which need only be mentioned. There are, first, a large number of custom laundresses who take family washing to their homes. These are not public laundries. Second, there are the Chinese laundries where work is done on the premises and is brought in and called for by the patrons; third, the hotel laundries which do their own flat work as well as custom work for their guests and frequently accept outside work; fourth, the so-called hand laundries whose relation to the steam rough dry laundries will be explained. The other three classes of laundries employ steam power machines, and are distinguished from each other by the class of work which they do. Fifth, come the flat work laundries which do restaurant and hotel washing exclusively and practically all the work is done by machine; sixth, the bundle laundries which have a direct family trade, collecting parcels of laundry from families and returning them fully laundered, or, in some cases, returning the clothing washed but not ironed; seventh, the rough dry laundries which deal with the public principally through the alleged "hand laundries" and also accept flat work and bundles when they can get them.

In January, 1912, occurred a strike of workers in the steam rough dry laundries of New York City which lasted through the month. The causes of this strike were investigated by the State Board of Arbitration of which I am chairman. The causes were found to be: long and irregular working hours, small wages, and refusal of employers to recognize and treat with the union. The Board found that the conditions as to wages and hours of labor were sufficiently bad to justify the complaints of the strikers.

The laundry strike has shown clearly that the relation between the rough dry steam laundries and the hand laundries in New York City

¹ Presented at the Administration Section of the American Home Economics Association, Lake Placid, New York, June, 1912.

is in many respects inimical to the welfare of the workers and to the public.

The so-called hand laundries are engaged in a business based on misrepresentation, and they failed to justify their existence. The support in the city of New York, of 6000 hand laundries where no real laundry work is done cannot fail to eat up nearly all the profits of the laundry business, and leave inadequate funds for wage payments in the steam laundries which deal with the public through the alleged hand laundries.

The testimony taken by the Board shows that each "rough dry" steam laundry affected by the strike collects from the public through about one hundred hand laundries, while steam "bundle" laundries which deal directly with the public are able to do an equal amount of work through about ten branches each. In other words, ten times as many branches are necessary, simply to do a little ironing of shirts and underclothing, not because it is better done, but in order to carry out the imposition on the public that all the washing, starching, and ironing, is done by hand.

In addition to the personal living expenses of 6000 proprietors of hand laundries, the item of store rentals for so many places is a very serious charge upon the profits of the business. It is shown that the hand laundries send flat work (sheets, towels, pillow slips, etc.) to the steam laundries, loose. There they are washed, dried, and mangled, and returned completely finished to the hand laundries for distribution. Collars and cuffs are washed and ironed by machine. Shirts are washed and starched by machine, but are returned to the hand laundries for ironing. All other goods (except an occasional delicate fabric of silk or woollen) are packed in nets or bags ranging in weight from 10 to 40 pounds, which are soaked in warm water and thin soap suds for a time, then rinsed, in rotary wash wheels, wrung dry in extractors and returned damp to the hand laundries, where they are ironed. These nets contain soft shirts, undershirts, underwear, stockings, and all kinds of other personal wearing apparel of the family. The clothing of several families is packed in one net and many nets are washed at a time in the same water.

These nets are washed for either 5 or 10 cents each by the steam laundries, and the hand laundries naturally try to get as much clothing in a net as may be washed with any degree of cleanness. The washing of a net costs from 25 to 50 cents, but they are taken below cost in order to get from the hand laundries the profitable washing of flat work, shirts, collars and cuffs.

A net will weigh about four times its dry weight when it is removed from the machine, and about twice its dry weight when it has gone through the extractor. Clothing thus mixed and packed may be from clean or unclean families, and from households where contagious diseases are found, including typhoid, scarlet fever, smallpox, and serious blood diseases. It is generally conceded that action of soap or other detergents and hot water in the washing process is not intense enough to kill such germs, because strong soap or hot water cannot be used on nets containing colored goods or the colors would run and flannels would be shrunk. It is an insanitary process which has developed from the use of nets, originally devised to contain fine white laces and linens which would be lost on account of small size or damaged in fabric by rough tumbling in the wash wheels if not protected by nets.

When the steam laundries try to abolish the use of colored nets or of heavy white nets, the hand laundries organize coöperative steam laundries which will take nets of all kinds and thus compel the steam laundries either to take them against their wishes or go out of business.

The hand laundries, in furtherance of their fraudulent pretenses, promise work returned to customers on pretense of doing it by hand, in too short a time for it to be done in reasonable hours by the steam laundries.

Another reason for irregular and long hours is the fact that work is collected Monday for delivery Monday night or Tuesday morning, and collections are made Thursday afternoon and Friday for return Saturday. Collection on a better plan would allow regular and systematic hours in steam laundries throughout the week. Work for delivery Saturday should not be collected after Thursday noon. Thursday afternoon and Friday collections should be returned Monday and Saturday collections Tuesday.

The keen competition among steam laundries to get hand laundry patronage, besides the necessity for rentals and living profits for 6000 almost useless laundries in New York make it impossible for the steam laundries to pay decent wages.

Legislation is necessary to correct the relation of steam and hand laundries and to correct the abuse of nets. Our legislature has enacted a 54-hour law for factory women which includes workers in laundries, so that nine hours a day six days a week will be a maximum week of work. In order to make a half day Saturday it will be legal to work ten hours a day five days and four hours on Saturday. This becomes

effective October first and will result in a great betterment of working conditions among laundry workers, many of whom testified to our Board that they were working over 60 hours per week, over 12 hours per day on certain days, later than 9 p.m. on certain days, and otherwise violating the existing factory laws.

Copies of the report of the Board of Arbitration on the laundry investigation may be found in the March Bulletin of the Labor Department, which will be sent on request.

It is a matter of vital interest to the home that public laundries shall be sanitary and that the employees shall be paid a living wage for a fair day's work. The enforcement of the labor law should not be left entirely to the inspectors of the labor department. The inspectors are few and do the best they can. Employees cannot be expected to complain of violations of the law. If they complain they fear discharge, and their real need of work to get a bare living makes them tolerate intolerable conditions. Citizens can coöperate with the labor department by making complaint to us where there is any actual or apparent violation of the law.

INSTITUTION LAUNDRIES.¹

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THEIR ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

Your committee began its work last November. It had before it three aims: first, to ascertain as fully as possible in how many places and under what conditions the problems of laundering in institutions were being solved; second, whether there was a felt need for women of thorough education in the supervision of such plants; and, third, what should comprise such education. To accomplish these aims a ques-

¹ Presented at the Administration Section of the American Home Economics Association, Lake Placid, June 1912. The committee sent out the following letter:

"Laundering in institutions is recognized as a large problem in sanitary and economic management. The Administration Section of the American Home Economics Association asks your coöperation in furnishing such data as you can on the enclosed schedule, and those who can are asked to supply the additional data, with copies of price lists, formulas, circulars, etc.

"A new profession for women is taking shape, the supervision of laundry work, which has within it great opportunities for service not only in educational and other institutions, but possibly in time, within the community. This investigation seeks

tionnaire and a circular letter were sent to hospitals, college dormitories, and other institutions throughout the country.

The scope of the investigation is so great that the number of questions which might helpfully be asked proved unwieldy. Even after much elimination the document proved formidable to many who received it.

The questionnaire was sent out late in March and replies from about one-third of the institutions have been received.

As funds were not available for an extended study, it has been possible to present only a small part of the results. Only about one-half of those who returned the questionnaires answered the first questions, and no one answered all of the questions. However, there is in the hands of the committee a mass of extremely valuable material and there is much to be learned from a minute, detailed study of and comparisons among the answers when they can be fully tabulated. Therefore the committee respectfully presents its report of something attempted, something done, and holds the material available for future work, subject to your wish.

A few gross summaries are presented here.

Representation.—Questions were sent to every State in the Union, to Panama, Hawaii, Ontario, Quebec, Manitoba and Saskatchewan, and returns were received from one or more in each state or province except Arkansas, Mississippi, Saskatchewan, and Hawaii.

Summaries from laundries in thirty hospitals and twenty-one colleges or universities.

Location: All but two wish a separate building. Others say: high ground, plenty of air and sun, near power plant, centrally located in the hospital group, preferably in the service building. Two prefer the top floor or two floors so as to utilize the roof for drying purposes.

Exposure: Only a few answers and there is no evident choice except that the building shall be open to all the winds of heaven; north exposure, if only one.

information which will help in organizing the subject-matter for instruction in laundry management. We shall greatly appreciate your coöperation, and as speedy an answer as is convenient is desired that the report may be presented at the annual conference of the Association in June.

“By the Committee,

L. RAY BALDERSTON,

Teachers College, Columbia University.

JESSIE M. HOOVER,

University of Idaho, Moscow.

S. MARIA ELLIOTT, *Chairman*,

Simmons College, Boston.”

Type of building: One, or at most two floors, and building of brick, stone, or brick with cement.

Floor: Half choose *cement*; the others choose tile, terazzo or concrete, while one emphasizes the benefits of wood in the ironing room, because of the lessened weariness to the workers.

Wall finish: There is a great diversity in these returns: brick, enameled, painted or whitewashed, glazed tile, cement, hard finish, painted or oil finished pine. All seem to agree that it is best "to be able to turn on the hose."

Cost: Varies from \$5500 without equipment to \$20,000 including equipment; the cost of six equipments given was \$3603.

Supervision: Two-thirds of the hospitals are under the general supervision of the hospital superintendent; seven have a separate superintendent.

Outside work: Only one does any work outside its own plant or its branches. (See Columbia, Mo.)

Is laundry self-supporting or maintained as a sanitary measure? On this question the returns are about equally divided. A small balance is on the side of economy while all agree that it is necessary to sanitation and to desirable hospital management. All colleges favor a laundry under college management.

Teach institutional laundering: None.

Demand for college-trained women: Only two dare to express any conviction. Of these, one thinks "yes." Five out of the eleven think positions as laundry supervisors may develop for women who will take one year of training in a technical school with laboratory practice in laundry methods, followed by a period of apprenticeship in an institutional laundry.

The age requirement is rather generally unanswered. One says: "Age is not so important as practical experience," but the ages given as a minimum range from eighteen years to forty years, with an average of twenty-four years. The answers show that maturity is considered desirable.

The technical training called for runs from "four weeks" (which shows how little the question was understood—although one demands "unlimited experience") to three years; the average calls for two years.

The belief that supervisory positions will be in demand for the woman who has had one year of training in a technical school with laboratory practice in laundry methods followed by apprenticeship in an institution laundry, is variously expressed: "Yes, if she is practical;" "Yes, if she has the 'bossing' instinct." One believes that the field will open in the community as well as in the institution.

The type of person thought necessary includes about all that either a man or woman could be—intelligent, resourceful, efficient, economical manager, willing, industrious, energetic, accurate, able to solve problems and combine science with daily work, capable of managing

help, willing to study his job, tactful, with mechanical and administrative ability. These show the direction in which education and training should be directed.

The studies thought to be necessary are numerous: Chemistry, bacteriology, hygiene, sanitation, textiles, steam engineering, plumbing, domestic science, accounting, practical and theoretical scientific management. These seem to culminate in "a thorough knowledge of all branches."

One answer sums up the others' opinions well: "Laboratory, apprenticeship, and experience, with some ideas of social work among women."

The following opinions quoted from Butler Hospital, Providence, R. I., are along the same line:

All of the processes carried out in a laundry are chemical and a laundry might very properly be called a chemical laboratory with a large output. In order to do this work and carry it on with the least possible damage to clothing and obtain the necessary results requires a person of exceptional characteristics. In the first place such a person must be able to handle help in such a way as to get a maximum amount of work from them without tearing down their constitutions. It requires a person of tact and a keen insight of many things. Such a person will be able to make an institution laundry an economic factor in hospital management. The proper person will carry on the work with several less employees than will be required of one less competent. It is not necessary for this person to do a large amount of manual work herself, but she must be so familiar with every branch and process connected therewith that she would be able to step in and do any employee's work in any department of the laundry. I do not believe that a woman who has taken one year's training in a technical school with large practice in laboratory method would be able to take a position as laundry supervisor without having a considerable period of training in either an institution laundry or a commercial laundry. In my own experience I have brought laundry troubles to the attention of men who have been constantly in the laundry business for twenty-five or thirty years to have them as puzzled over it as we have been here. I should say that there might be a demand for college trained women in this branch of work, but the person who would make a success as a laundry forewoman or a laundry supervisor must possess certain natural characteristics that with education would fit her to take up a similar position in almost any walk in life.

For this educated and trained person the expected salary ranges from five dollars per week and living up to one hundred and fifty dollars per month, which one man is now getting. From fifty to sixty dollars per month with living seems to represent an average salary which those who answered considered "excellent."

Expectations.—Expectations for new laundries show the field to be widening. If so many are to be opened, who will supervise them?

That there is a need of better knowledge, supervision, and help in solving difficulties is shown by the following quotations:

Y. W. C. A., Washington, D. C., Florence M. Brown, General Secretary: For two years we maintained a laundry in another Association. It was never very popular, although we had a few pupils each year. Personally, I believe it is a subject that we would do well to push until we have learned to teach it properly and make it as popular as the teaching of cooking.

Walnut Hill School, Natick, Mass.: Miss Bigelow and I have often canvassed the question of establishing a laundry, but owing to difficulty of getting reliable information as to proper equipment, cost of maintenance, etc., we have never done so. . . . We should be very glad to know the results of your investigation.

Earlham College, Richmond, Ind.: Next year we hope to have things in better condition and to work out some problems that will enable us to make comparisons with other institutions doing a like amount of work. I hope that the next meeting of the Administration Section will be able to draft some standard form which can be used for statistical purposes.

Y. W. C. A., Boston: We find plenty of women who want the position of laundry matron but they do not usually want to do much work. The *work* is what we need. Our laundry is a busy place and with present labor conditions we have frequent breaks in the ranks of the plain, everyday workers. So a Superintendent must know how to manage when she has no help and work presses.

College educated women will not take such work. Our girls are taken at a low rate of board. Ten pieces of plain laundry are included in the price of board and we cannot pay salaries to a large staff. So far as I can judge, our work is not as strenuous as it is in most institution laundries. Institution workers are now often free every evening and all day Sunday.

The class of help from city sources is the worst known; few women could control them.

Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, Fla. Built a laundry and attempted to run it for three months, but found it impracticable and impossible to maintain because the number of students at that time was less than two hundred. The expense of maintaining the laundry was so great that the girls objected to the added expense of their laundry. The negroes in the community do the "washing" well for fifty cents per week per student, regardless of the number of pieces. It is impossible to run a small laundry here and make expenses on any such price. Consequently we can't get the girls to patronize the laundry.

Y. W. C. A., Scranton, Pa.: Scranton has a model laundry—The Lackawanna—which does splendid welfare work for its people.

Y. M. C. A., Buffalo, N. Y.: Profits are small, and a trained worker should demand a higher salary. The public as yet does not appreciate careful laundering, it is looking for present results.

The fullest return of the 212 came from Mt. Hermon School for Boys, Mt. Hermon, Mass., where all of the laundry work is done by the boys of the school with results which the superintendent thus summarizes:

In the beginning of the year work runs a little hard, but after the first six weeks the place runs with scarcely a hitch. There is no limit to the amount of plain clothes which the students may send. We mean that they shall be clean. The students pay four dollars for plain laundry, which includes everything not included in our starched list. I am not afraid to put the work of my boys on shirt waists and white dresses in competition with the fancy ironing of any laundry in the State.

The laundry itself is cleaned by the boys in this fashion:

The first thing in the morning the floor is swept thoroughly (including corners). After that the machinery is dusted—two boys do this work and it takes about two hours, but it is worth the time. Saturday we scrub the floor and scald out the baskets; clean all the machines and wipe the belts with a damp cloth. Once in four months we go over all the interior with scrubbing brushes.

Her qualifications?—"Must love work and be a worker" "She must start at the bottom and work up."

He explains his choice of the term "forelady" in this way:

For any woman who acquires the art of properly handling the finery of her sisters deserves a place with the heads of departments in any institution.

Her place is anywhere from the engine room to the office, and she (or he) must have a working knowledge of steam and should be able to do any part of the work from stoking the boiler to ironing a white gown of Mexican drawn-work.

The age?—Forty; and that the salary should be from fifteen to seventy-five dollars per week, depending upon the size of the institution.

The requisite studies are chemistry, bookkeeping, steam-fitting, plumbing, and domestic science. A knowledge of chemistry is absolutely essential since one must know what not to use as well as what to use and the effect upon the goods. Bookkeeping is necessary in order to know whether the balance is where it should be. A knowledge of steam engineering and the working of steam trap; also how to install and set up machinery and do some steam fitting—how to lace a belt and how to fire a boiler—all these things are necessary to success; these are the practical things, and laundry work is not all theory. It would be necessary to spend at least one year knocking about, so to speak, in every part of the work to learn something of everything. One need not be able to do everything better than the other fellow but should know enough to be able to tell when it is done well and how to do it well.

I am glad for the sake of the profession that the conference is taking up this study. . . . The salary would depend on the ability of the person and the work to be done and would be based on the profits—or the amount saved over previous managers.

It seems pertinent also to present two quotations from the standpoint of the commercial laundryman. The first is an extract from the *National Laundry Journal*, June 1, 1912, p. 2:

The Northwestern Launderers' Association has put in motion a vigorous campaign for the enactment of a national law compelling the correct labeling of fabrics. . . . The buyer should be able to know what he is getting; there is no intent to deprive him of the right of buying adulterated or imitation fabrics if he desires to do so. This is the psychological moment for concerted action, and it is to be hoped that some plan can be formulated which will induce every laundryman to give his individual attention to the matter and urge his representatives to work for the enactment of the much-needed law.

The second quotation comes from the same *Journal* for May 15, 1912, and explains itself:

COMMUNITY LAUNDRIES.

Laundry owners whose plants are located in agricultural districts will do well to get in position to serve the farmers at once, and forestall the "community" laundries which are rapidly springing up. Wherever one of these plants is established and proves successful, it will sooner or later begin to compete with the local laundry which is now established. The first plants advocated by the rural and agricultural papers might be called toy concerns, the plans calling for equipment of the household type, but now the *Agriculturist*, of Minneapolis, one of the leading farmers' papers, is advocating regular power laundry equipment and plenty of it. While facilities for doing only rough-dry work are contemplated in its estimates, it would only be a short time until such a concern would add a little more machinery and be in some cases a better equipped plant than the existing laundry. Therefore we would advise the laundrymen of these communities to forestall such plants by preparing to do the farmers' business and then get to do it to their satisfaction.

These summaries bring the subjects of the investigation before you in a general way. The details of organization have not been fully tabulated and are of little value outside of their proper setting.

Respectfully submitted for the Committee,

[signed] S. MARIA ELLIOTT,

Chairman.

PENNY LUNCHESES IN ROCHESTER, NEW YORK.¹

ALICE M. HOTCHKIN.

Since April, 1911, a penny mid-morning luncheon has been served to the undernourished and anaemic children in the second, third, and fourth grades in two of our grammar schools. These children are not necessarily underfed but are more or less below normal and need the strength and nourishment which this added meal at 10.15 o'clock supplies.

In every instance teachers report a decided improvement in the mental ability of the child having this nourishment.

These luncheons consist of hot soup, cocoa, milk, boiled rice, cooked fruit, peanut, jam, and jelly sandwiches. With soup, cocoa, milk, and cooked fruit a piece of bread or three crackers are served for the penny. The amount charged for the food pays for materials but does not furnish the labor required in its preparation. This expense has been met by the Women's College Club and Woman's Educational and Industrial Union.

In another grammar school a more elaborate meal is served at 11.30 for the benefit of a special class of truants and so-called incorrigibles who come from other schools in the city. Most of these boys are of foreign parentage coming from homes where they are not properly nourished. Not a few of them are self-supporting, earning a certain amount each day before and after school by selling newspapers.

When this class was first organized the boys were not in the least interested by the attempts made to instruct them. Searching for some reason for this lack of progress the principal of the school found that three-fourths of them came to school without any breakfast, and that their noon lunch consisted of stale pastry which they bought for a few cents. Believing that lack of nutrition had a serious bearing upon this condition she asked that a penny luncheon be served these boys at 11.30. The result has been that those students who had fallen behind in their studies from truancy or waywardness were soon brought

¹ Presented at the Lake Placid Meeting of the Administration Section of the American Home Economics Association, June, 1912.

to such a standard of scholarship that it is possible for them to be returned to their home schools.

In this school the Board of Education equipped a kitchen and furnished a small lunch room with mission tables, chairs, and pretty dishes. For the first six months the Mothers' Club paid for the labor, but since that time the Board of Education, appreciating the value of these lunches, has furnished the labor. These lunches consist of soup, meat stews, hash, steamed sausage, macaroni, potatoes, rice, desserts, fruit, cocoa, milk, bread, crackers and cake. The average amount spent is four cents, and about forty students are fed each day.

These lunches are so attractive that pupils from other grades asked to be allowed the privilege of the lunch counter. This favor is granted where the food supply is sufficient after feeding the truant class.

When paper napkins were first introduced they were a real curiosity to these boys, but after becoming acquainted with their use, they are unable to eat without them. As one boy said, "Gee! it's lots better than using your sleeve, and say, I looked into an eating house the other day and saw folks using cloth ones." Another boy took his napkin home, and after explaining its use to the family they decided to try the piece of paper with the result that I had the pleasure of buying a package containing a thousand napkins for this family. The mother said, "It does save the sleeves and aprons so."

These are but a few of the interesting items connected with these lunches, but is it not enough to prove that the penny lunch has educational value?

EDUCATIONAL NEED AND VALUE OF LUNCHES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.¹

General.—All the arguments of *health, social value, convenience, and expediency* that have won the fight for the provision of wholesome, well-planned meals served at cost to the children of high school age, apply equally to a similar provision for children of the elementary schools.

Opportunities for education, direct and indirect, and for habit forming are greater with the younger children, first, because they are younger, and second, because there are so many more of them. Following are some of the educational possibilities, many of them realities,

¹ Prepared for distribution to the School Board by the Philadelphia School Lunch Committee of the Home and School League.

where schools are equipped with the lunches. (26 United States cities, 200+ English cities, 150 German cities, 1200 French communities, 55 Italian cities, etc.)

(a) Direct: Obvious advantage of warm, attractive, palatable food to the body. Formation of regular habits of eating well cooked food. Valuable experience in social intercourse, mingling freely with fellows and teachers on a friendly basis. Table manners and social amenities.

(b) Indirect: Correlations with direct instruction in elementary hygiene, physiology, proper mastication, care of teeth, cleanliness. Teaching of food values: instead of tracing the digestion of an imaginary meal, tracing the digestion of school meal: academic versus concrete. Correlation with the pure food movement: need of Americans particularly for sane ideas about food and its relation to working efficiency. Accustoming the children, especially foreigners, to know and like the cheaper and more wholesome American foods. Little Jewish and Italian children are learning to like hominy, and corn meal, and simple meat-dishes. *Economics*: There is actually a large amount of money available in the form of pennies that children are spending every day. Why not take advantage of the opportunity thus offered for teaching children to spend money properly and buy food wisely? A conservative estimate made hastily shows that an amount is actually spent at present in the schools having penny lunches equivalent to a dollar per child during the school year.

Penny lunches at 10.30 a.m.—Specialists in children's diets are commonly agreed that little children need more frequent meals than do grown-ups, and that a mid-morning meal, lighter than either breakfast or lunch, is very wholesome. This need is well attested by the eagerness with which children get food from any source during the morning recess. Where there are no school lunches the children either get the pretzels, candy, or pickles from push-cart men; or when these men are not allowed before the school door, they get wares before school and save them; or they eat lunches brought from home for their noon lunch. Experience has shown that children will get something to put in their stomachs at this time, and if not wholesome food, then the poisonous substitutes of the streets. A light, well-planned, and therefore easily assimilable meal in the middle of the morning has an immediate effect on the children's power of attention and their resistance to fatigue. That this makes the remainder of the session far more efficient is the universal testimony of teachers wherever the lunches have been tried.

Three-cent dinners at noon.—The aim of the modern school: To reach the whole child, not his head merely. The noon hour offers an unrivaled opportunity to reach the child through the two most important channels that its nature affords: the *play instinct* and the *food interest*. The Department of Physical Training of this city has recently formulated the idea of an hour recess at noon in all schools, with supervised play and a school lunch. (This advantage is realized by all good private schools.) According to the observation of at least one principal, a large amount of truancy is caused by the long, uncontrolled noon recess, with its lure of the streets.

Note.—Although a large proportion of our school children—10 percent, by conservative estimate—are suffering from malnutrition, the relief of this condition is not the aim of school meals. It is the conviction of the majority of the workers in the movement that if the school is to assume responsibility, it must be because of purely educational considerations.

WANTED, A TEST FOR "MAN POWER."¹

ELLEN H. RICHARDS.

The force which has accomplished work in the world has always been man power. Progress in mechanical work has been greatly aided by the adoption of standards to which an effective machine must conform. Standards of human accomplishment are needed to measure the output of man. It was cheaper to have the peons of Mexico dig the great drainage canal than it was to install excavators because of the cost of fuel and transportation. It is cheaper in the mines of Mexico to have these same peons carry the ore sacks up what they call their chicken ladders than to install hoisting machinery. Such people live on about 3 cents a day, Italians, Bohemians and many foreign laborers who come here live at the rate of 10 or 12 cents a day, while our average American workmen wants at least 25 cents a day for his raw food material and as he does much more work, in this case man power depends largely on the food he eats.

Every human being is a self-contained motor; we do not go to pumping stations and get charged up for a day's work, but we are obliged

¹ Abstract of commencement address at Clarkson Institute, 1906, and read by Mrs. Dewey at the Administration Section Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Lake Placid, June, 1912.

to manufacture from the food we eat, the exercise we take, and the general good condition we are in, all the energy we have, not only what we need to keep ourselves warm, to keep the heart pumping, but all this force, this man power that we have to spend. It has been estimated that a man who has a very good digestion, very good circulation and lung capacity, is able to do about one-fifth as much as a horse; not the first time, without practice, but as an ideal. Electricity gives a much better comparison with this man force, of which we do not see the source, as we do in the horse pulling a load, but we know the force is there because of the power evident in results. We use the term efficiency for the result of electric current and we are transferring that term very generally to human achievement. The human body should be a very good electric motor, because we have nerves, those little threads which give the impulse to motion and carry out the will. An ordinary machine, the steam engine, uses only about 10 per cent of the liberated energy, while electricity frequently utilizes 90 per cent. The human body, having the most perfect mechanism known in the way of ropes and pulleys and lubricated joints, ought to utilize a very high per cent of the energy manufactured. If we do not there is something wrong, some friction, some resistance reducing the power or some lack of connection. We fritter away a great deal of energy in just mere heat work, in friction. Like the electric current, there must be good contact between the places whence the force comes and the things we wish to accomplish. Therefore we are making today, more than ever before, a great study of what is the best environment for the production of this human power. First is good digestion. The food must not only be eaten, it must be assimilated, there must be good circulation, because the food must be carried to every tiny cell, for it is in the tiny little cells everywhere that force is liberated. There must be good and refreshing sleep, because, like electricity, there must be an accumulation of energy before we can get pressure to use. There must be good lung capacity, good breathing power, to bring oxygen to burn up the food we take in order to give us this energy. There is no other way to get it, one should stand right, keep one's shoulders right and have the fresh air habit. All the nerves must be in good condition because of the more exacting demands of life today. It is absolutely necessary to have a sound body to manufacture and to conduct the electrical, or whatever force it is within us, to the very best advantage. That is why we are preaching so strongly the doctrine of health, of sanitation, of

education in all these things which are given in the courses of home economics.

This physical efficiency, as a basis for mental efficiency, is the fundamental point of the human production of the force which surely moves the world, and which is the most valuable force we have. A horse is worth, perhaps \$200, a man, a day laborer, \$2000. A good teacher is worth \$20,000, if you take the salary expressed as interest. A good engineer is worth \$200,000 actual capital, and yet much more care and study has been put on the food for our \$50 pigs and \$200 horses than for our \$200,000 engineers. This human force is so valuable because today it is the direction of affairs which we expect the human power to take. It can assemble and collate and collect forces and get results. It is the man or woman who sees the end clearly, who knows what can be done, how this thing can be made better, how the whole thing can go together for human progress. The peon digging in the canal, has just himself, he lives on 3 cents a day and does a little work just as he is told. Those who work the forces, who have the powers, want 60 cents a day for food and are worth it, too, because they are working a great deal more in force and power than has been possible before today.

Huxley, defining an educated man, says:

That man, I think, has had a liberal education, who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work that, as a mechanism, it is capable of; whose intellect is a clear, cold, logic engine, with all its parts of equal strength and in smooth working order, ready like a steam engine to be turned to any kind of work, and spin the gossamers as well as forge the anchors of the mind; whose mind is stored with a knowledge of the great and fundamental truths of nature and of the laws of her operations; one who, no stunted ascetic, is full of life and fire, but whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will, the servant of a tender conscience; who has learned to love all beauty, whether of nature or of art, to hate all vileness, and to respect others as himself.

The difficulty has been a lack of personal responsibility for personal power. Excuses are made: "Oh, well, I was born so." "Well, my father never could do that and my grandfather never could do that." An acrobat, an actor, almost any human being can make of himself almost anything if he is willing to work hard enough for it. If he fails it is because of lack of will to do it. We need something which will teach us to nourish the will. Those who are going to make for power in the world are those who can work against resistance, who do a thing because it has to be done.

We ought to have within us a sense of spare energy, a force of abounding vitality. We ought to wake in the morning, glad that we have a day's work to do and feel the ability to do it. When young men go out into the world that sort of thing is found out very quickly. The world is a severe task master, a person finds his level very quickly, no matter what he is trying to do. Inefficiency is a growing evil. We should find in ourselves a test of our ability to do. We have no new word to express this, only the word used in electricity—efficiency.

The habit of allowing children to grow up in any kind of way, eating just what they like, playing if they like, studying if they like and what they like, may seem very nice to the children, but it does not give them the right sort of habits, it will not develop character, force, and efficiency. This material machine of ours is manufactured in the home, from the habits of life formed there. All the sciences must be made to contribute to the problems of better living conditions which render possible the truer production of human energy, which in its most valuable form, creates, organizes, combines and controls all other forces. The future of America does not lie in railroads, in machines, in commerce, in agriculture. The future of our republic will be determined by the character of the American homes.

EXTENSION WORK IN HOME ECONOMICS THROUGH AGRICULTURAL AGENCIES.

ANNA BARROWS.

Much extension work in agriculture is being done all over the country and with this every year more home economics is combined. Though some still question whether this is a proper use of funds appropriated for agriculture, there evidently is increased recognition of the importance of the country home.

Originally the state board of agriculture or a special commissioner was responsible for the farmers' institutes and what is commonly classed under extension work, but this usually was affiliated with the agricultural colleges and experiment stations.

Gradually the colleges have come to see their large opportunities for reaching the people, by means of short courses and correspondence and by sending trained workers to those who cannot come to the college. Five years ago few colleges had definite extension departments. Now over thirty are reaching out in this way. There is, however, something to be said in favor of separate organizations,

working in harmony, that the people themselves may feel direct responsibility for the arrangement and carrying out of programs.

The farmers' institute specialist, John Hamilton, in a report on "Farmers' Institutes for Women," notes that over 13,000,000 women and girls live in rural districts, and that to reach such numbers with even limited facilities for the study of domestic science and household arts will require a radical change in the methods heretofore pursued, movable schools must be organized, etc.

Three or four years ago the directors of farmers' institutes in the United States held over seven hundred institutes for women, but the report for 1911 published in the fall of 1912, does not show a great advance.

The states holding the largest number of women's institutes are these; Delaware, 29; Florida, 2; Maryland, 6; Michigan, 48; North Carolina, 401; North Dakota, 5; Oklahoma, 183; South Carolina, 4; Utah, 4; Wisconsin, 86. Home Economics however undoubtedly received attention at many of the 16,000 sessions of the regular institutes.

Those who wish further data will do well to refer to bulletins from the Office of Experiment Stations and to the proceedings of the annual meetings of the Farmers' Institute Workers. The proceedings¹ for 1911 contain the digest of a questionnaire sent out by Miss Martha Van Rensselaer, chairman of the Committee on Women's Institutes for that year. No report was made by this committee at the last annual meeting. The chairman for the coming year is Mrs. F. L. Stevens of Mayaguez, Porto Rico.

Farmers' institutes for young people² recently have been developed. Competitive exhibitions are held and premiums offered which stimulate interest in the farm and its products. The western and southern states have been more active in this line than the east. To balance the corn raising contests for the boys canning clubs for the girls have been formed especially in the south; this work has been fostered by the Bureau of Plant Industry and a circular concerning it was issued in January, 1912.

The aim is to have the boys and girls start right. Normal children love to work with their hands and should be trained to work together since coöperation is a special need of country districts.

¹ Circular 85, Office of Experiment Stations. Farmers Institutes for Women.

² Circular 99 of the Office of Experiment Stations. Farmers Institutes for Young People.

Some institute workers deprecate the separation of the members of a family by holding different meetings for men, women, and children, just as church workers have felt that lack of cohesion in community interests was an inevitable result of too many special organizations. Class consciousness is found to interfere with natural united effort in family, church, and community.

A general farmers' institute, with one session for women and one for young people, appears to be best adapted to most communities and is usually approved by the institute conductors.

Agricultural instruction trains must also be reckoned as important factors in extending information about farming and home-keeping.³ The Seaboard Air Line was one of the first railroads to discover the advantages of such exhibits. Recently the railroads in several states have coöperated with the agricultural agencies, providing cars, offering prizes for record crops, and giving special rates to the institute workers and the farmers attending state meetings. There is a possible danger that manufacturers of utensils and food products may occupy an undue space in such exhibits. North Carolina in 1908 appears to deserve credit for sending out the first car furnished for instruction in domestic science.

The "Farmers' Week" at the agricultural colleges is becoming generally established and often extends through a fortnight. This cannot directly reach as many people as the institutes and movable schools which come closer to the homes. But those who spend their money and their time to go to the colleges doubtless make a greater personal effort to secure returns for what they have invested than if it were offered without any cost to themselves.

For the same reason it has been found wise to charge nominal fees or make certain requirements of the communities where movable schools have been held. An important feature for extending information regarding agriculture is the printed matter sent out to the people from the agricultural experiment stations and colleges. *Home Economics* receives more attention in this way each year.

The Cornell Reading Courses, "Lessons for the Farm Home" are published semi-monthly throughout the year. In this series, within a few months have appeared, "Principles of Jelly Making," by N. E.

³ Circular 112, Office of Experiment Stations, Transportation Companies a factor in Agricultural Extension.

Bulletin 251 of the Office of Experiment Stations. Proceedings Sixteenth Annual Meeting of Am. Assn. of Farmers Institute Workers.

Goldthwaite, of the University of Illinois; "Saving Strength," by Emily M. Bishop and Martha Van Rensselaer; "The Preservation of Food in the Home," by Flora Rose; "Rules for Cleaning," by Mary Urie Watson of Guelph, Canada.

Excellent bulletins occasionally have been sent out from the household science departments of several state universities, notably those by Miss Rosa Bouton, Nebraska; Mrs Calvin, Indiana; Miss Stanley, Missouri; from Ohio State University, etc.

In Kentucky the Home Economic Clubs and the Women's Auxiliary Clubs of County Farmers' Institutes have prepared a bulletin with plans for organizing such clubs. The Department of Household Science, University of Illinois, has issued a syllabus of domestic science for the high schools of that state. Oregon Agricultural College has prepared a suggestive two-year course in cookery and one in sewing for the elementary and secondary schools of Oregon. The Wisconsin Department of Farmers' Institutes has printed thousands of cook books and home bulletins for distribution.

In limited space it is impossible to do justice to work of the individual states. Many lack financial support from the legislatures; others find difficulty in securing lecturers who can make practical application of scientific knowledge. But every state is doing something in popularizing the fundamental principles of the art of living.

Kansas has been a pioneer in women's work both in its state college and in institutes. Indiana is well organized and has done excellent work for home economics. Michigan has had ten women lecturers on the force of institute speakers.

Colorado was one of the first states to conduct movable schools of domestic science. Three teachers usually were sent out to give instruction for five days in a place. To secure such courses it was necessary for one hundred women to register and pay a fee of one dollar.

The Iowa State College has a department of agricultural extension and Miss Neale S. Knowles has conducted the domestic economy exercises. Courses in foods and cookery are arranged for the boys' and girls' clubs.

The State College of Washington, under Miss Josephine T. Berry, holds schools of a week in different parts of the state. The plan has been to give lectures on nutrition and sanitation in the morning, and laboratory work in the afternoon. The school has a portable equipment for twenty-four.

The Illinois Domestic Science Association affiliated with the Farmers' Institutes, and the Department of Household Science of the

University of Illinois, in charge of Professor Isabel Bevier, has done notable extension work throughout that state. A two weeks' school for housekeepers is held annually at the university with about two hundred women in attendance. This is followed by a six weeks' course in cooking and serving which was offered for the first time last year, when forty women availed themselves of it. A larger attendance is anticipated this year.

Further work is done throughout the state in movable schools. Over twenty will be held this season, the instructors in which are Mrs. Jennie C Barlow and Miss Florence Harrison. The local organization pays traveling and hotel expenses of the instructors and equipment, provides suitable hall, blackboard, stove, refrigerator, tables, larger utensils, and materials, and the college supplies the teachers.

Wisconsin for several years has had a week's school in home economics during the winter under the direction of Professor Abby L. Marlatt. This year the central thought will be "Coöperation, Relation of Home to the Community." Professor McKeever of the Kansas State Agricultural College will give lectures on "Teaching Children to Save" and "Rural Renaissance and After." Mrs. Nellie Kedzie Jones of Auburndale, Wisconsin, will give lectures and instruct classes—as she has done in many other states, and at the Illinois State Fair.

The veteran farmers' institute director for Wisconsin, Mr. McKerron, long has approved of domestic science instruction and many women's sessions are held throughout the year.

The Missouri Homemakers Conference has held five annual meetings in connection with Farmers' Week at the State University, Columbia. Among the subjects considered have been—"Advances in Infant Feeding," "Recreation for the Farmer's Wife and Children," etc. The short course for women begins January 6, 1913, and lasts for seven weeks. Some correspondence courses in sanitation and dietetics are offered by the Department of Home Economics under the direction of Miss Louise Stanley. The State Board of Agriculture employs Miss Nell Nesbitt as institute lecturer, who is working toward the further organization of the Homemakers Clubs.

The University of Minnesota, under President George E. Vincent, has enlarged its plans for extension work. A week's program was arranged for each center chosen, one day was devoted to public health and another to home welfare. The eighteen communities where this was tried last year unanimously asked for a repetition. A special effort was made to bring city and country people together that they might realize the needs they have in common.

Oklahoma has been progressive in organization and through its State Board of Agriculture has offered short courses in agriculture and domestic science in each county. By a system of contests, a prize of a week at the state fair, or at the district agricultural school of the college, is offered to the boys and girls of the state.

Among other eastern states New York is easily first. The directors of Farmers' Institutes for many years have given the women of the state a share of the lectures of the institutes. Occasional women's institutes have been held and special sessions are frequent. At Cornell the Homemakers Conferences and short winter courses in home economics are forms of extension work, since there is no entrance requirement and no university credit granted.

New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania hold some special meetings for women in connection with regular institutes. The state agricultural college of New Jersey has this year for the first time established a course in Home Economics.

New England has done less work through its agricultural agencies than some other sections, probably because of the activity of its women's clubs and the older established schools of household science. All the states in this group send out occasional home economics lecturers through the boards of agriculture. Professor Bertha M. Terrill of the University of Vermont does considerable extension lecturing. Miss Comstock has charge of the Home Economics Department at the University of Maine and for some time has been chairman of this section for the State Federation of Women's Clubs. The Connecticut Board of Agriculture had one home economics address at its annual meeting last year and Miss Hayes of the Agricultural College has arranged a course of lectures for extension schools.

Professor W. D. Hurd of the Massachusetts Agricultural College has planned a helpful series of lectures available at nominal rates to granges, women's clubs, and schools throughout the state. Miss Diana M. Constable has been the principal lecturer on Home Economics.

In the South there is more a demand for separate sessions for the women. North Carolina has had some wide-awake women who have provided special programs on domestic science topics. Prizes for bread to be awarded in accordance with the score card devised by Professor Isabel Bevier have been offered at some of the North Carolina institutes.

Florida has had a farmers' institute train on which Miss Agnes

Harris of the Florida State College for Women at Tallahassee did good work with charts, exhibits, and lectures.

West Virginia University at Morgantown held a short course in domestic science in February, 1912. Professor Rachel H. Colwell also has aided the women's clubs in home economics courses and gives occasional lectures at institutes in different parts of the state.

The Tennessee Department of Agriculture seems to be awake to the importance of instruction for the whole family and encourages industrial clubs for the young people and homemaking sections at its farmers' conventions. Miss Catherine A. Mulligan of the State University responds as far as possible to calls from the homemakers clubs which are auxiliary to the farmers' institutes of the state.

Kentucky devoted one day to women's interests at a state institute held in Frankfort last winter, and is organizing homemakers clubs, and has sent out a train on which home economics was represented.

The University of Texas is planning to do some extension work in the near future.

Ontario, Canada, may teach the "states" some lessons in the organization of institutes for women. In 1911 there were nearly 20,000 women enrolled as members of the women's institutes and the attendance at the meetings was over 150,000. Last year a new plan was started by the Superintendent, George A. Putnam, in a group of six institutes and a course of demonstration lectures on Food Selection and Preparation. This was so successful that a similar plan is being followed this year and a course on sewing is being given also. One of the lecturers says, "The first week's meetings in the lecture course in food preparation have amply evidenced the interest the women are taking in the course. It seems to indicate a desire on the part of the women to keep pace with a movement that is world-wide, the betterment of human life and of increased efficiency. Viewed in this way, rather than as an opportunity to learn a few new dishes, the course assumes added importance."

THE OBSERVANCE OF HOME ECONOMICS DAY.

The seventieth anniversary of the birth of Ellen H. Richards, December 3, 1912, was appropriately observed in schools and colleges, and by women's clubs and other organizations throughout the United States and Canada. The Richards Memorial Committee received word of meetings in Boston, Seattle, New Orleans, Minnesota, Chicago—to name only a few of the most widely scattered points.

One letter from the far West said, "My girls had never heard of Mrs. Richards, and when I told them of her they decided to call their students' organization the Ellen H. Richards Home Economics Club." This may well be the beginning of a chain of student Richards Clubs in all institutions which teach home economics.

One Southern college sent for lantern slides illustrating the home economics movement and Mrs. Richards' life. Many of our higher institutions may wish to add these lantern slides to their collections, and thus be able to bring to their students each year something of the life of the remarkable leader of the home economics movement.

One school in Illinois inquired whether it could not secure an enlarged portrait of Mrs. Richards, which could be framed for its school laboratory. Mrs. Richards' family graciously gave permission to have the enlarged photograph made, and the Committee has now arranged so that any school can secure it at a cost of two dollars up.

The Memorial Committee published for Home Economics Day sketches of Mrs. Richards' life, one based on Miss Hunt's biography, and the other a story for boys and girls by Miss Frances Stern called "The Fourth R—The Art of Right Living," and these with briefer sketches of "Xenophon, the First Home Economist," "Count Rumford, an Early American Home Scientist," and "Catherine Beecher and Our First Home Economics Book," written by Mr. Andrews, aided in the program of observance for Home Economics Day. Copies of these pamphlets may still be obtained through the Association's office, Roland Park, Baltimore, Maryland.

The Ellen H. Richards Home Economics calendar for 1913, edited by Miss Isabel Hyams, has been received as a most fitting tribute with its photographs of Mrs. Richards and illustrations of scenes connected with her life, and its striking quotations from her writings. The calendar was printed too late, unfortunately, for sale on Home Economics Day, but there has been a widespread demand for it. A few copies are still available at fifty cents.

Home Economics Day was made the occasion in many institutions of raising contributions for the Ellen H. Richards Memorial Fund. In some cases students held candy sales or entertainments in connection with the program of observance. Everywhere, however, the day seemed to have been an occasion of recalling the services of the leader who has gone, and of making plans to bring to a fuller realization her hopes for the widespread adoption of instruction in the art of right living in all schools and colleges. Plans are already being made for Home Economics Day, December 3, 1913.

EDITORIALS.

Probably nothing more clearly proves that our efforts toward a state of efficient and orderly social existence are at present very elementary than the fact that there is as yet no place in **A Library of Social Experiments.** even the best equipped library for the records of what we may call The Social Experiment. True, certain famous efforts to live the ideal life have been the subject of careful study and record, Brook Farm for one, principally, it would seem because many of the people who tried for "a more natural union between intellectual and manual labor," were well known in the field of letters, and the public craved knowledge of how Curtis or Hawthorne would run a plow or pare a potato. Full accounts also of Robert Owen's communistic colony founded on the Ohio River nearly a century ago are available, for this experiment was conducted on a large scale with large funds and by a man who was at that time very prominent in English philanthropy.

But every year obscurer people are trying out their theories of better adjustments of the factors that make up daily living. The primitive subjects, food, clothing, and shelter, are capable of infinitely varied expression and all these efforts to apply newer physical and economic laws to age-old problems are slowly bringing about the New Housekeeping. Slowly, yes, far too slowly, for only by accident is a generation able to avail itself of the experience of the one preceding. A few examples will illustrate. Coöperative Housekeeping has a persistent hold on the imagination of women; since the Cambridge Experiment in 1870 every decade sees some much heralded effort in this direction. Sums of money are raised, a band of women give all their time for a season to work out the details, then comes collapse. Money and enthusiasm, hard work and ingenious devising have come to naught. The promoters say they have "failed," whereas they have in reality been doing a real service to any who may come after by showing how *not* to attempt Coöperative Housekeeping. The trouble is they do not realize their duty to their successors to print a detailed account of their experiment in a prominent journal where it can be readily found no matter how many years later it is wanted. And the same may be said of the attempts to establish coöperative buying.

In Boston, in 1890, the New England Kitchen was opened in order to apply to the cookery of the cheaper food stuffs the results of modern science. It had an interesting career and it made possible the serving of lunches to the public schools of Boston, the first attempt of the kind. Its report was written in a little pamphlet of which perhaps a dozen copies are in existence, and this is the history also of the School of Housekeeping afterwards adopted by Simmons College, and of the Household Aids Company, the report of whose two years' work on the problems of furnishing hour and day service for the household was admirably written up by Mrs. Richards. The Arundell Club of Baltimore made all the estimates for a Coöperative Laundry and the report of it is lost in the advertising shoals of an obscure magazine.

Is the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS to be the means of rescuing these interesting records from oblivion? And will it be the medium in which records of future experiments of the kind will be preserved? All depends on the funds that can be placed at its disposal.

Visit a large hospital and note at each bed the case record of the patient as it is kept by doctor and nurse. Stop and consider that these case records are all to be indexed and filed for the use of other physicians studying like cases. Thousands of these are available for their study. The science of diagnosis and of treatment is built up in this way.

Our experiments in better methods of conducting our daily life on the material side will make but slow and halting progress until we begin to collect, sort, print, and file the records of every attempt, whether for its positive or its negative lessons.

In November, 1912, the first *Bulletin of the American Home Economics Association* was issued to all members of the Association.

The *Bulletin* is not intended in any way to compete with the JOURNAL, but is a means of communication between the Association and its members, for giving advance notices and programs of the Association, for publishing a list of the members, for promoting, and advertising the work of the Association and the JOURNAL. The January *Bulletin* contains the list of members of the Association, and the constitution, revised to date. There are many subscribers to the JOURNAL who are not members of the Association, and some members of the Association who are not subscribers, and with the *Bulletin* it is hoped to keep in touch with all of our friends, and to persuade them that the best results are obtained by being *both* subscribers and members.

Beginning with this issue of the JOURNAL the list of affiliated associations and their officers will be published regularly in the JOURNAL.

Affiliated As- It is unavoidable that this list is at present incomplete, but it is hoped that before long a correct list of these
sociations. associations and their officers will be available. Corrections and additions should be sent at once to the Managing Editor of the JOURNAL.

As announced elsewhere in the JOURNAL the annual meeting of the Association will be held at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., June 21-27, 1913. The Administration Section will hold
Annual Meet- its annual meeting at the same time and place, as
ing for 1913. will also the Housekeepers' Section. The experiment of holding a summer meeting instead of the usual winter meeting is being tried, as the demand from teachers and other workers, as well as from students, indicates that such a meeting is greatly desired. The prospects, even at this early date are that the meeting will be a large and enthusiastic one. The program will be published in an early number of the *Bulletin* and also of the JOURNAL.

The JOURNAL will be glad to buy at forty cents (\$0.40) per copy the following numbers of the JOURNAL: Volume I, numbers 1, 2, 3, and 5; Volume II, number 1; and Volume III, num-
Back Num- bers 2 and 3. The amount for returned numbers
bers Wanted. will be credited to the subscription or paid in cash, whichever is desired. Please send to the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, Roland Park Branch, Baltimore, Md., and notify the JOURNAL what numbers are being sent.

There are about 5000 libraries in the United States, only 240 of these are subscribers to the JOURNAL. How shall we increase this number? Letters, even when accompanied by sam-
Libraries as ple copies, we have reason to believe, do not always
Subscribers reach the attention of the librarian, and in any case a busy official is apt to delay action.

But there is one method of appeal which no library can resist, the repeated call for any book or journal by even a few of its readers.

Will every one who reads this make it a matter of personal duty to ask for the JOURNAL at the local library, to ask again and again, and to enlist the help of friends in this laudable enterprise and when the JOURNAL has been placed on the shelves to see that it is called for and read.

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4. EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WORK.

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Coöperation and Cost of Living in Certain Foreign Countries. U. S. House of Representatives, 62 Cong. 2 Session, Doc. 617, pp. 248. Data collated by U. S. Consuls.

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False Food Standards and the High Cost of Living. Editorial, *Jour. Am. Med. Assn.*, December 7, pp. 2072-2073.

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The Growth of Children. Franz Boas, *Science*, December 13, pp. 815-818.

Choice and Care of Utensils. Ida S. Harrington, *Cornell Reading Courses*, vol. ii, no. 27, November 1, 1912.

Dr. Carrel and the Span of Life. *Survey*, November 9, 1912, p. 170.

BOOKS AND LITERATURE.

The Home Nurse's Handbook of Practical Nursing. By Charlotte A. Aitkens.
W. B. Saunders and Company, Philadelphia, Pa. \$1.50.

Everyone will agree that every woman and every girl ought to be better prepared to care for the health of the family and to meet the emergencies that threaten health and life as intelligently and as skillfully as possible. It will also be admitted that under present economic conditions it is impossible for many families to employ a trained nurse for every case of illness, and so often we must make some provision for an untrained attendant who can give a cheaper service. There are many things that can be undertaken by such unskilled workers with comparative safety; the hygienic care of the sick room, devices for making the patient comfortable, personal cleanliness of the patient, nourishing food, etc. These general practical measures the author outlines clearly and for the most part quite adequately in the earlier part of the book. But when she begins to touch upon the nursing of such extremely serious conditions as are found in pneumonia, typhoid fever, diphtheria, and scarlet fever, she gets on rather dangerous ground. The best physicians admit that in these diseases especially, expert nursing care is of greater importance to the patient than medical treatment. Surely, it is not assumed that with this smattering of rules and directions, any woman is going to feel herself competent to undertake such highly responsible work?

Many of the illustrations in the text show a girl of between fourteen and sixteen years, by her appearance, dressed up as a nurse, performing with supreme assurance medical and surgical treatments that no good nursing school would allow its pupils to undertake without months of preliminary training and the most careful supervision. Such treatments as rectal feeding, hot and cold packs, typhoid sponging, catheterization, etc., may do very serious injury to a patient if they are not given skillfully and intelligently. They are here disposed of in a few lines, with the assurance in the preface that all this work can be easily grasped by the average girl or woman who is able to master sixth or seventh grade school work. Surely it is not intended that the two chapters on maternity nursing will be given to high school girls, as seems to be indicated in the preface. The chapters on the care of babies, on emergencies, and the hints on invalid cookery, are practical and helpful, though by no means complete. One wonders why there is not more attention given to the nursing care of such slight disorders as colds and sore throats, and the chronic conditions such as rheumatism and paralysis, instead of the more serious and acute disorders which, even in the poorest families, can be cared for much better in hospitals or through district nursing associations.

The pretensions of the unskilled attendant and the amateur home-helper, cannot fail to be strengthened by the whole tone of this book. What wonder that hundreds of women, after such a pitifully meagre training (so-called) announce themselves publicly as "nurses," when every page proclaims them such and even the illustrations skillfully carry out the suggestion. Surely, "A little knowledge is a dangerous thing!"

Personal Hygiene and Physical Training for Women. By Anna M. Galbraith. 1911. W. B. Saunders and Company, Philadelphia, Pa. \$2.

This book, written especially for college girls by a woman physician, is likely to be very widely used in high schools and women's colleges. The facts presented seem to be thoroughly scientific and reliable, and the tone of the book is wholesome and sensible throughout. Subjects such as the hygiene of the toilet, care of the hair, hygiene of women's dress, etc., are given more space than in most general books on hygiene. The illustrations are very good, especially in the section on physical training.

Text-Book of Hygiene For Teachers. By Dr. R. A. Lyster. London: W. B. Clive, University Tutorial Press, Ltd. 1912. 4s 6d. Reviewed in *Nature* (London) 89. No. 2233. 1912.

The three parts into which the book is divided are The School, The Scholar, and The Medical Supervision of School Life.

According to the review, the volume deals with the subject "in a practical, common-sense manner on a physiological basis. There are chapters on elementary physiology, so that readers without previous physiological training may appreciate the reasons for the hygienic conditions demanded. The important subject of ventilation is well treated, the standard demanded high, but not impossible. In the chapter on foods and digestion it is a relief to note that food testing has not been included, as is so often done in books on hygiene with unsatisfactory results. In this chapter, however, fats are wrongly described as hydrocarbons, and ptyalin is said to convert starch into grape sugar instead of malt sugar. The book is readable, and may be recommended to teachers and others as a practical and useful text-book."

The Science of Hygiene. A text-book of laboratory practice for public health students. By Walter C. C. Pakes. New edition, revised by Dr. A. T. Nankivell. Methuen and Company, Ltd., London. 1912. 5s net. Reviewed in *Nature* (London), 89 No. 2233. 1912.

As the sub-title states, this volume is designed as a text-book of laboratory practice for public health students.

In its present form the book consists of the chemical and microscopical sections of the 1900 edition, revised and extended.

According to the review, "It is intended for public health students, and deals with the analysis of water, foods, beverages, soil, air, and disinfectants, with chapters on microscopy and meat inspection. The directions are clear and concise, and adapted for the examination for the diploma. The reactions are shortly explained, and examples of calculation given. . . . In spite of a few . . . errors and omissions of some modern processes, the book may be recommended as a useful laboratory companion for public health students."

The Business of Being a Woman. By Ida M. Tarbell. Macmillan Company. \$1.25.

Some of the chapters now collected under this title appeared during the past year in the *American Magazine*, where they found attentive readers, for Miss

Tarbell's style is always clear and forceful, her subject-matter of vital interest. In her study of social questions she shows a rare combination of strong feeling and conviction with a liberal and broad-minded inquiry into facts.

There is a chapter on clothes and one on the house service question but most of the book is taken up with what Miss Tarbell considers the main "business" of a woman, that is her relation to the home and to children. In order to fit herself for her high function woman has rightly struggled for higher education and varied training "to make her intellectually a companion worthy of a child" "to form the character of the future citizen of the Republic." But too often the end of this preparation has been lost sight of, the beauty and joy of free individual life have dulled the sense of national obligation."

Duty, in all its old and its new forms, especially duty to form the proper social and spiritual conditions for the young is the watchword of this book.

A strong chapter is *The Childless Woman*, where is set forth her obligation toward the children and young people of her neighborhood and the blessing to her own life from fulfilling that obligation. To the woman of fifty or sixty, often empty handed, this is a great opportunity to lead a life full of helpfulness and joy.

Miss Tarbell puts great weight on the woman's function as the consumer, the spender of the income, and yet the young wife may not "know a debit from a credit, has to learn how to make out a check correctly and has no conscience about the fundamental matter of living within the allowance set aside for family expenses." "Whenever a woman does master this economic side of her business she establishes the most effective school for teaching thrift, quality, management, selection." Such scientific household management is the rarest kind of a training school. "Every home is perforce a good or a bad educational center. It does its work in spite of every effort to shirk or supplement it." The day when women realize their duty as buyers will see the death blow dealt to "sweated" industries, food adulteration, and extortion in many forms.

She makes a strong plea for the study of social history by women. "The past is a wise teacher. There is none that can stir the heart more deeply or give to human affairs such dignity and significance. The meaning of woman's natural business in the world—the part it has played in civilizing humanity, in forcing good morals and good manners, in giving a reason and so a desire for peaceful arts and industries, the place it has had in persuading men and women that only self-restraint, courage, good cheer and reverence produce the highest types of manhood and womanhood—this is written on every page of history."

In short, the whole purpose of the book is to dignify the home-making profession, home being "one of the unescapable facts of nature and society—unescapable because the child demands it," to show that "the endless details of her life have a reason, as routine and discipline have for a soldier." "As a social institution nothing so far devised by man approaches the home in its opportunity nor equals it in its successes." It is a profession in which to use the best gifts and the highest training.

Making Both Ends Meet. By Sue Ainslie Clark and Edith Wyatt of the Consumers League. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50.

A book which tells the actual experiences of New York working girls living away from home, and their struggles to make both ends meet. A fact emphasized

throughout is that there are over six million women gainfully employed in this country.

Special chapters are given to income and outlay of saleswomen, the shirtwaist-makers' strike, the cloak-makers' strike and the fight for the preferential union shop, unskilled and seasonal factory work, monotony and fatigue in speeding—this includes mechanical and skilled handwork—the laundry workers, and scientific management. The particular hardships of each trade are pointed out and where possible suggestions for lessening these hardships are given, scientific management and unions are spoken of as the two great remedies which, in the future, will relieve the horrible conditions under which these slaves of industry are struggling.

The book is well written, states the facts clearly and from an unprejudiced viewpoint, making it interesting and instructive reading for the average reader interested in the struggles of the less fortunate, as well as for the social worker, who will find it of value.

The Coming Generation. By William Byron Forbush. D. Appleton and Company. \$1.50.

A book so charming in its style, so full of first-hand observation of youth, so thoughtful, and so suggestive rarely comes to hand. Even its chapter headings whet the appetite, *Some Adventures Among Savages, The Young Pretender, How a Child does His Thinking, Books and Firelight and Children's Faces, The Gang, The Religious Life of a Child, The Wander Years, The Modern Home, The Art of Being a Godparent.*

Eugenics, Health, and Vocational Training and College have their due place and attention—together with the problems of Dependent and Neglected Children; Reformatory Methods; The Juvenile Court; Regulation of Child Labor, and lastly, Betterment through Religions, Social Nurture and Service.

The introduction strikes no uncertain note; the author considers that "behind all the forces for betterment stand certain national problems. . . . Some of these are:

"No nation yet has been able to stand prosperity; the future of America depends upon the ability of the men of today to help the men of tomorrow to use wisely and with self-control resources, instruments of power and means of luxury such as no other people has known.

"No people has hitherto solved the problem of bringing up children successfully in great cities. We who are becoming in our conditions everywhere an urban people have that problem upon us.

"No religion or school of morals has so far succeeded in adequately educating the youth of its race in morals. But this is a thing that must be accomplished.

"No social or moral progress can be made without preserving the home in integrity, sanctity, and power. Never was the home in greater danger.

"No civilization has yet understood how to bring to the surface its submerged portion, to bring up to ranks its backward section and to gather up the fragments of its human waste. This matter as it applies to adults and children alike we have set ourselves to face."

Each chapter is followed by references to books on child study and kindred topics, and at the end of the book is a list of bibliographies which should prove very helpful to the student.

The Family House. By C. F. Osborne. Penn Publishing Company, Philadelphia. \$1.

This popular treatise on house building discusses location, sunshine and view, planning and building, heating and ventilation, plumbing, the house and the garden, timely repairs, and similar questions.

Plumbing and Household Sanitation. By J. P. Putnam. Doubleday, Page and Company, Garden City, N. Y. \$3.75.

Historical data, theories which have to do with the general subject of plumbing, and practical and theoretical plumbing problems are discussed in this volume, which represents a course of lectures delivered before the Plumbing School of the North End Union, Boston.

Hot Water for Domestic Use. Edited by J. K. Allen. Domestic Engineering, Chicago. \$0.50.

In this volume designed to give information regarding supplying and heating water for domestic purposes, such different systems of water heating are described, and information is given on such topics as range boiler connections, use of check and safety valves, incrustation of water backs, and deposits of mud in water backs and boilers.

House Sanitation. By Marion Talbot. Whitcomb and Darrows, Boston, \$0.80.

This is the practically rewritten book which under the title Home Sanitation was issued by Mrs. Richards and Miss Talbot some twenty-five years ago and has been ever since a standard. During this time many sanitary theories have radically changed and such a rewriting was necessary in order to bring the book up to date. The questions appended to each chapter call attention to important points and emphasize them.

A good bibliography and index are furnished.

Fresh Air and How to Use It. By Thomas Spees Carrington, M.D., 105 East 22d Street, New York. \$1.

Although this little volume is published by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, it seems to be mainly addressed to the well who wish to remain well or to become stronger. As one opens the book one is struck with the wealth of illustration devoted to the one subject of out-of-door air—how to get it by day and night. Open air bungalows and cottages, houses with open air apartments; roof play-grounds, tents and tent houses, sleeping porches with methods of protecting and screening them are all treated at length, and especially full is the treatment of roof bungalows, window tents and "wall houses" with exact directions for construction. Those who remember the sensation created by Dr. Knopf's window tent exhibited at the first Congress for study of tuberculosis can hardly credit the great advance in knowledge that has since been made along these lines. Open air sleeping has been made not only feasible but easy of attainment for people living in even the most restricted quarters. There is also a chapter on clothing, bedding, and furniture for out-of-door sleeping.

A Manual of Shoemaking. By W. H. Dooley. Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1912. \$1.50.

This book, which is designed specially to meet the needs of students in trade schools and of those engaged in the shoe industry, will doubtless find many readers among that class in the community which is as wide as the community itself—the wearers of shoes. Some fault may reasonably be found with the arrangement. The History of Footwear, for example, would seem to be a more fitting subject for the first than for the last chapter. In general, however, the subject matter is clearly presented in readable form and the book is attractively illustrated. The interest of the lay reader will doubtless center upon the portions of the book which deal with the anatomy of the foot, hygienic footwear, and with the less technical details of shoe manufacture. There will be an added claim upon the attention of students of home economics because of the fact that the making of shoes was so recently a home industry. Agassiz, watching the traveling cobbler in his father's home, is said to have acquired a skill in shoemaking which lasted throughout his life. Young people of today, barred from similar opportunities, are dependent upon such books as this and upon the intelligent observation of the factory processes, which the book will do much to illumine. It is a matter of regret that the author has introduced into the last chapter an unqualified commendation of the royalty system by which shoe machinery is leased, without at the same time, pointing out the dangers connected with it under monopolistic conditions in the trade. The author, who is the principal of the Lowell Industrial School, prepared the volume as a text-book for the proposed shoe school of the city of Lynn, Mass. and in general for the use of industrial, trade, and commercial schools.

Francis W. Parker School Year Book. By the faculty of the Francis W. Parker School, Chicago. Vol. i, pp. 140. Price 35 cents. Press of the Francis W. Parker School, 330 Webster Avenue, Chicago, 1912.

The faculty of the Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, has undertaken to publish, annually, a volume entitled *The Francis W. Parker School Year Book*, consisting of a series of concrete, illustrated reports of work actually done in the school along new and experimental work in education.

Being unhampered by the traditions that beset the average school and free to experiment in any way with the content of the course of study and methods of organization and teaching, the school is endeavoring to carry out certain modern fundamental principles and aims in education—principles and aims advanced especially by Colonel Francis W. Parker, one of the pioneers in the modern educational movements in this country.

The school proposes to share with the general educational public the benefits of its experimentation through the Year Book. Each volume will be devoted to some one phase of education as actually worked out in the school.

Volume I is devoted to the social motive in school work, and consists of a number of reports dealing with phases of handwork, music, dramatics, etc., in which the social motive predominates. The reports are plentifully illustrated.

Experimental Domestic Science. By R. H. Jones, London, 1912. Reviewed in *Nature* (London), 89. No. 2233. 1912.

This volume, which the author states is intended primarily for domestic science

schools and girls' schools generally, offers a suggested course based upon the belief that science can be taught by means of the study of cooking processes and that principles can often be made clear "by drawing upon everyday experience, and largely by the aid of kitchen utensils and commodities."

There are chapters on elementary physics and chemistry and popular fallacies as well as on the principal processes of cookery.

According to the review of this volume cited, there are a number of inaccuracies in the text. "The aim is admirable, and much of the book is excellent, but in attempting simplicity experiments are described and results stated that will tend to perpetuate just the types of error and inaccuracy that are already too prevalent.

In a book written for students who have little or no training in science, accuracy and caution in interpreting results are most important. However, the book contains many good suggestions for this kind of work."

Food Values—Practical Tables for Use in Private Practice and Public Institutions. By E. A. Locke. D. Appleton and Company. New York and London. \$1.25.

The author has briefly discussed foods and their uses and similar topics and has presented a large amount of data in tabular form, including the equivalents of weights and measures used in connection with foods and dietetics, the composition of prepared and cooked foods, alcoholic beverages, and the average composition of American foods in general. The preface states "information has been drawn largely from the numerous reports of investigations made under the direction of the United States Department of Agriculture." The book is provided with an index.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Milk Question. By M. J. Rosenau. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. \$2.

The Child's Day. By Woods Hutchinson. Book I—the Woods Hutchinson Health Series. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. \$0.40.

A Montessori Mother. By Dorothy Canfield Fisher. Henry Holt and Company, New York. \$1.25.

Making A Business Woman. By Anne Shannon Monroe. Henry Holt and Company, New York. \$1.30.

Why Women are So. By Mary Roberts Coolidge. Henry Holt and Company, New York. \$1.50.

Color Harmony in Dress. By G. A. Audsley. McBride, Nast and Co., New York. \$0.75.

Household Textiles. By Charlotte M. Gibbs. Whitcomb and Barrows, Boston. \$1.25.

Dressmaking Self Taught. By Edith Marie Carens. Carens College of Dressmaking, Jacksonville. \$1.

The Cutter's Guide. By M. E. Roberts. Angus and Robertson, Ltd., Sydney, Australia. 7/6.

L'Année Pédagogique. Published by L. Cellérier and L. Dugas. Libraire Felix Alcan, Paris. 7 francs 50.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD.

The Second International Congress for the Teaching of Household Economy, already announced in the JOURNAL to be held in Ghent, Belgium, June 15-17, 1913, is in connection with the Tenth International Congress of Agriculture (June 8-13) and the Third International Congress of Women Farmers' Associations (June 13-15). A special trip for the Congress of Agriculture and for an agricultural tour through Europe has been arranged. A similar tour for the study of home economics can be arranged if there is a demand for it. For particulars address the Bureau of University Travel, Trinity Place, Boston, Mass.

The annual convention of the Ontario Women's Institutes was held in Toronto, November 13, 14, and 15, 1912. These institutes have had a remarkable growth not only in numbers but in the amount of work accomplished. This institute now numbers 20,800 members from the province of Ontario. Among the papers presented the following were of much interest: The Physical Development of the Child, The Mental Development of the Child, The Hired Man, Work of the Training Courses, Women and Business Methods, Model School Houses and Gardens, Laws Relating to Women and Children, Contagious Diseases, and Labor Saving Devices. An exhibit of pictures of the conditions under which neglected and dependent children live and work was also given. Throughout the session much emphasis was placed on national child welfare work, the question of the segregation of the feeble-minded, and child labor.

The American Civic Association held its eighth annual convention at the Hotel Belvedere, Baltimore, Md., from November 19 to 21, with the Women's Civic League, Municipal Art Society, Maryland State Federation of Women's Clubs, Medical and Chirurgical Faculty, and the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Associations, as hosts. This association is doing such valuable work to all communities that we quote in full from its program the objects of the association: "To make living conditions clean, healthful, attractive; to extend the making of public parks; to promote the opening of gardens and playgrounds for children and recreation centers for adults; to abate public nuisances—including objectionable signs, unnecessary poles, and wires, wasteful smoking factory chimneys, unnecessary noises; to exterminate the typhoid fly; to make the buildings and the surroundings of railway stations, schools and factories attractive; to protect existing trees and to encourage intelligent tree planting; to preserve great scenic wonders (such as Niagara Falls and the national parks) for the public and from commercial spoliation." The topics for the various groups of papers were as follows: Parks—Trees—Children. Housefly Session—A Definite Advance in City Planning, including papers on The Human Side of City

Planning, Creating a Neighborhood by Planning, Spending to Save in City Planning, and Teaching a City's Plan to Its Children; and a Symposium of Capital Cities.

The Homemakers Exhibit and Conference, announced in the December issue of the JOURNAL, was held in the First Regiment Armory, Chicago, November 18 to 23. The object of the Exhibit and Conference, in addition to **Homemakers'** raising money for the School of Domestic Art and Science, is **Exhibit and** stated as follows in the invitations which were sent out; The desire **Conference.** to show a definite method of improving home making, by showing better housing materials such as enter into the construction and maintenance of the home: To promote health and reduce the cost of living by showing more suitable foods and more economical and nutritious methods of preparing them; To secure greater efficiency in the home by the use of labor saving devices and time saving methods; To stimulate interest in more artistic dressing by showing honest fabrics, good fashions, millinery and costume designs, demonstrating the application of the principles of art and utility in women's costumes. Each day there were lectures on topics of interest to housekeepers as well as to others, among which were the following: What We May Hope to Gain from this Exhibit and Conference, Miss Mary S. Snow, Supervisor of Household Arts, Public Schools of Chicago; Housing, Miss Sophonisba Breckinridge, University of Chicago; The Function of Color in Food, Dr. Albert S. Gray; Historic Costume in its Relation to Modern Dress, Miss Ruth Wilmot, Pratt Institute; Textiles, Miss Nellie Crooks, Milwaukee-Downer College; Market Inspection, Miss Theresa Norton, Woman's Municipal League, Boston; The Department of Agriculture Work for the Housewife, Dr. C. F. Langworthy, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington; Opportunity and Obligations of Home Economics, Miss Isabel Bevier, University of Illinois; One View of the Art of Right Living, Miss Helen Louise Johnson, Associate Editor of *Harper's Bazar*; Nostrums and Quackery, Dr. Cramp, Editorial Staff of the *Journal of the American Medical Association*; First Aids to the Housewife, Miss Abby L. Marlatt, University of Wisconsin; Some Food Fancies and Follies, Dr. W. A. Evans. During the conference a meeting of the newly organized Housekeepers' Section of the American Home Economics Association was held, details of which will appear in a later issue of the JOURNAL.

This Association held a memorial meeting for Mrs. Richards on December 3 at the Garland School, Boston. Hon. John D. Long, former secretary of the navy and ex-governor of Massachusetts, spoke of his recollections of **New England** Mrs. Richards as a school girl, when he, just out of college, taught **Home Eco-** in Westford. He described her as an earnest, gentle girl, showing **nomics Asso-** ing no evidence of the great force and energy which later she **ciation.** displayed. Prof. W. T. Sedgwick, in his reminiscences of her later life, suggested that the germs of her independence and force of character lay dormant during the more conservative surroundings of her early years, to be developed in a wonderful degree by the stimulus of the very novel environment at Vassar. He paid high tribute to her scientific work. Later many personal memories were related by friends and former students. A portrait of Mrs. Richards was placed in the reception room surrounded by a garland of green and pansies. Mrs. Stannard, principal of the school and president of the New

England Association presided, and after the meeting the students served refreshments.

The Association announces the following program for the winter months: November 9—Dr. F. B. Dyer, Superintendent of the Boston Public Schools, "The Relation between the Home and the School." December 3—Ellen H. Richards Home Economics Day, held at 19 Garland Street, by invitation of the Garland School. Short addresses by Hon. John D. Long, Prof. Wm. T. Sedgwick, and others. December 30—Informal dinner in honor of Mrs. Mary Schenk Woolman, President of the W. E. and I. Union and supervising head of the Domestic Science Department of Simmons College. December 31—American Home Economics Association, annual meeting. February—"The Sociological Aspects of Home Economics," at the Y. W. C. A. March—A meeting for Home Makers. April—A Home Economics Exhibit, May—Annual Meeting. Detailed notices of these meetings will be announced later.

The Washington Home Economics Association has announced the following program for the season of 1912-13. December 3—Ellen H. Richards Memorial Day. Series of talks: Textiles and fibers. February 3—Source of supply of materials. Nature and properties of materials. Preparation of materials for use. Adulteration and sophistication. Curious and unusual materials and fabrics. April 18—Cost: (a) Actual cost; (b) Value to consumer. Renovation and protection. Purchase: (a) Intelligent selection; (b) Bargains; (c) Family needs. Series of talks concerning food materials. June 3—Supply and demand. Labor, etc. Rents, etc. Risks, etc. Demands of Community, (a) Food value; (b) Purity; (c) Cleanliness; (d) Quality; (e) Inspection. Nearness to market. October 7—Marketing and markets: Methods of purchase. Laws and regulations. Storage and market conditions. Provision and grocery stores. Reaction of intelligent purchase on supply. The Association is cooperating with the Clean City Committee of the District of Columbia in its work of "bringing about and maintaining a model condition of cleanliness in the District of Columbia." Miss Alice Faye Seiler, president of the Washington Association, was elected delegate to the committee.

One of the pleasantest social features of the State Teachers Association was a tea given by the Home Economics Club to the visiting domestic science and domestic art teachers. Over one hundred representatives of these departments were present from different parts of the state. It is hoped that this is only a beginning of larger state gatherings. The program for the year includes an investigation of some of the newly equipped kitchens controlled by the various industrial concerns of the city; a study of the new filtration plant and a lecture by Dr. James Wiley.

The University of Illinois reports a considerable increase in its attendance and the addition of three new members to its staff: Miss Maud Parsons, a graduate of the University of Illinois, comes from the residence hall for women at the University of Missouri to take charge of the lunch room work and a part of the work in institutional management; Miss Grace Stevens is a graduate of the University of Illinois and

has been teaching for two years in the Michigan Agricultural College at Lansing; and Miss Ruth Wheeler, who comes from two years' study with Dr. Chittenden and Dr. Mendel at New Haven, is in charge of the research work.

The new building is to be ready for occupancy the second semester and will greatly increase the equipment of the department of home economics and enable it to offer work in institutional management in connection with the lunch room which is to be opened in February.

Another new feature is an arrangement with the Burnham Hospital by which the nurses in training are taught invalid cookery in the department of home economics. Miss Stevens is in charge of this work. The Hospital reciprocates by giving certain privileges to students of this department who are interested in hospital work.

An apartment and a room for lecture work and illustration in the home care of the sick are valuable additions to the department's equipment.

The department has continued the new form of extension work undertaken last year, viz., movable schools, and the housekeepers' conference to be held for two weeks beginning January 13, followed by an extension course of six weeks in food and clothing.

The work of this section of the high school conference consisted of a discussion of the syllabus. A new feature was suggestions for grade work in order that the work for the high schools might be put upon a more certain basis. The report showed that one hundred and eleven schools are teaching domestic science and art now compared with forty-two when Miss Pincomb began her work as high school visitor in domestic science in 1908.

The New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University for the winter of 1912-13 offered a three months' course to women who desired to become more efficient housekeepers. It was the only non-professional course in home economics offered, and embraced lectures in the preparation of foods, sanitation, household management, household decoration and furnishing, and sewing. The course opened November 19, and before that date more than forty-five applications had been received.

This university offers correspondence courses in almost every branch, including agriculture, engineering, history, home economics, political economy, political science, sociology, education, law, and music. The university also has a department of instruction by lectures, a department of debating and public discussion, and a department of general information and welfare. Bulletins are published by each department and everything possible is done to encourage study, thought, and improvement.

Goddard Seminary. A friend of the school, Mrs. C. Bolster, has presented Goddard Seminary, Barre, Vermont, with equipment for the new Department of Domestic Arts, representing a money value of \$400.

THE FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING—AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION.

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS.

Teachers College, Columbia University.

The fifth annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association was held at Simmons College, Boston, December 30 and 31, 1912, as the guest of the New England Home Economics Association. The meeting was attended largely by members of the Association living in New England and the East. The Executive Committee had already announced the annual meeting for 1913 to be held at Cornell University in June, in response to a wide-spread request for transferring the annual meeting from the winter to the summer. For this reason a one-day program only was arranged for Boston and the more extended program has been postponed until the Cornell meeting.

The first day of the convention was devoted to committee meetings and to the convention dinner. On Monday morning the Executive Committee met at Simmons College for a session which extended throughout the day and which considered matters of vital importance in the development of the Association's work. Reports were presented to the Executive Committee with regard to the Association's finances, the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, the Memorial Fund, and in particular, with regard to the organization of the office work of the Association. A beginning has already been made, as most of the readers of the JOURNAL know, in the organization of a National Home Economics Office through the employment of a managing editor for the JOURNAL who has devoted during the last six months full time to the work of the JOURNAL and the Association. The problem placed before the Executive Committee was the more complete development of this Central Office. A review of the finances showed that the beginning made has more than justified itself in increased membership for the Association and an enlarged subscription list for the JOURNAL.

The state of finances at the end of the year indicated that it was possible to take another forward step by adding a second salaried worker at the central office who would devote full time to the work

of the Association particularly. Accordingly, the Executive Committee voted, and the Association in its business meeting later approved, the further development of the business office so that it can take over the routine work of the secretary and treasurer of the Association, and as well, continue the present services for the Association and the JOURNAL.

On Monday evening, the New England Association tendered a testimonial dinner to Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman who comes to Boston, February 1, to become the president of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union and advisory head of the Household Economics Department at Simmons College. This gathering brought together all of the delegates to the Convention besides many persons in Boston who are interested in the Home Economics movement and in the work of the institutions to which Mrs. Woolman is coming.

The dinner thus had a double interest in that it was the annual gathering of the delegates to the convention as well as a testimonial to this leader in home economics work. After dinner had been served a number of informal addresses were made, all bearing upon the present situation in the home economics field and especially in the local institutions with which Mrs. Woolman is to be connected. Mrs. Margaret Stannard, of the Garland School, presided as toast-mistress and introduced Dr. Langworthy of the United States Department of Agriculture, who gave a tribute to Mrs. Woolman for her organization of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls in New York City, the first institution of its kind in America. He also spoke of the Syllabus of Home Economics now in press, which has been compiled by a committee of the Association, and explained some of its interesting features, particularly with regard to domestic art subject matter.

The second speaker was Dr. Andrews of Teachers College who brought to the gathering greetings from that institution and spoke of Mrs. Woolman's service as a pioneer in developing Domestic Art as a subject of instruction. "To her," he said, "we owe all our subject of textiles in the triune of food, clothing, and shelter, which forms the center of the home economics idea."

The third speaker was Mrs. Abel, Editor of the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS. She spoke particularly of the need of a publication fund which would make available the wealth of scientific material in the field of home economics that is gradually being forgotten. She cited the New England Kitchen, the Household Aid Company, and

the laundry experiments in Baltimore as instances of social experiments for the improvement of the household, the results of which ought to be made available in permanent printed form.

Dr. David Snedden, Commissioner of Education for the state of Massachusetts, spoke next and emphasized the idea of efficiency in education and urged that, while the home economics movement up to the present has had partly the character of a humanitarian and uplift movement, in the future there would be need of more specialized work upon the detailed problems of home and social life.

The chairman presented as the succeeding speakers Dean Sarah Louise Arnold, who extended a welcome to Mrs. Woolman on behalf of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union, and President Le Favour of Simmons College who spoke on behalf of the College. They pointed out the contribution which the Union and the College were making in this unique effort to combine theory and practice in the higher training of young women for vocations. Mrs. Woolman was the last speaker and spoke most interestingly. The solution of maladjustment in woman's work and wages, she said, will be found in training women to be more efficient workers, that they may be worth more in the market, and such training must include not only theory but practice; the new proposal in the Simmons-Union coöperation is that there shall be provided shops, mercantile establishments, restaurants, and other practice fields *under educational control* as are the model class rooms attached to a normal school or university school of education.

On Tuesday morning, the Association met at Simmons College for the program which consisted of three papers on economic and social aspects of home economics. Dr. Susan M. Kingsbury of Simmons College, and Director of Research for the Woman's Union, spoke first on "Research Related to Household Economics," outlining some of the general problems, such as legislation, administration, and values, in household economy, which are proper subjects of investigation, and which once determined by establishing the facts involved will make possible a better living in home and institution. Dr. Kingsbury cited some of the concrete problems upon which her students have been engaged: A study of legislation and municipal regulations for the control of bakeries, an investigation as to values in the canned goods upon the market, and a study of costs of living under various types of administration. The second paper, by Mrs. Eva White of Elizabeth Peabody House, Boston, on "Household Economics and

Social Service," was a remarkable presentation of the fundamental relation of the home to all other social institutions and to all manners and morals. Based as it was on experiences in betterment efforts persistently directed at the individual family until improvement came, and then an improvement which irradiated through the whole life, the paper made perhaps the most profound impression of the whole convention. The third paper, by Dr. Andrews, outlined the courses in household economics given in Teachers College, and together with Dr. Kingsbury's paper, made plain that there is in applied economics a field of instruction of first importance for our higher curricula in Household Economics.

The morning session adjourned to the Dormitory of Simmons College where the delegates were entertained at a delightful luncheon as the guests of the College. Miss Morse of the Simmons College Corporation was present to assist in welcoming the Association. At the conclusion of the luncheon, the business session of the Association was held and the reports of officers and committees were submitted.

While the official minutes are printed elsewhere, one must at least mention here certain items of business: The report from the significant Graduate School of Home Economics which held its biennial session last summer at Lansing; the reports from the two Sections of the Association, the Administration Section, meeting for the third session at Lake Placid in June, and the Housekeepers Section which coöperated in the Domestic Science Exhibit and Congress at Chicago in November; the encouraging word from the Editorial Board, that the future of the JOURNAL seems secure if the devoted support of voluntary workers will continue; the report from the Executive Committee that a Central National Office for the Association and JOURNAL will now be begun on a modest scale, but with plans that promise great things for the home-betterment movement; the recommendation of a budget system of expenses from the Finance Committee with a schedule for 1913 of allowances for committee work, sectional organizations, meetings, the *Bulletin*, and the new Central Office; the plans for the great national meeting of the Association at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., June 21-27; the hopeful view of the Richards Memorial Fund which is making steady progress, and in connection with which Home Economics Day will be observed December 3, 1913, in schools, colleges, and clubs; the gratifying financial situation revealed in the Treasurer's report; the progress reported by the committees on legislation, publicity, revision of constitution, the International Home Economics Congress in Ghent—all these and many other

facts brought out were evidences enough of a great national movement at work through various agencies, all aiming at the improvement of living conditions in home, institution, and community.

When the business was completed, Mrs. Abel, at the chairman's request, spoke in conclusion, gathering up some of the main thoughts of the convention, and leaving "words of courage" with the delegates as the meeting adjourned.

MINUTES OF FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING, AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION.

The fifth annual business meeting of the American Home Economics Association was held December 31, 1912, at Simmons College, Boston. In the absence of the President, Miss Bevier, the first vice-president, Dr. Langworthy, presided.

The Chairman announced the appointment of the following committees: *On Resolutions*, Miss Anna Barrows, Miss Vita Franklin and Miss Adelaide M. Abell; *On Audit*, Mr. Frank Whitcomb and Miss Alice R. Griswold.

Secretary's Report.—The report of the Secretary of the Association was presented by Mr. Andrews as follows:

The fourth year of the American Home Economics Association has been marked with progress. Time has tested the home economics idea, and it has shown its inherent power. The spirit of the leader who has gone has very evidently become a part of the life of the organization, and the work for social welfare which started in the woman's division of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and that in quite an unofficial way, is now finding support in a thousand institutions throughout the land. The celebration of the seventieth anniversary of the birth of Ellen Swallow Richards on December 3, which took place in colleges, normal schools, public schools, and in women's organizations in every state and throughout Canada, demonstrated that the art of right living which she espoused is moving forward now in its own strength.

The Journal of Home Economics: July 1, 1912, marked an advanced position for the JOURNAL in securing the full time services of an assistant to the editor. A central office for the Association and the JOURNAL, referred to below, has in effect been established through this step. As always the JOURNAL has depended upon the voluntary service of its editor and contributors, and this must continue.

Quarterly Bulletin: The Association established in November, 1912, through the action of its Executive Committee, the quarterly *Bulletin* to be sent to all members of the Association, and to contain notices of meetings, reports of proceedings, and other official communications. The new quarterly *Bulletin* is at once a sign of membership and an objective return to those who have paid dues. These dues alone make possible the Association, the organization upon which the JOURNAL depends, the series of annual meetings, the chain of affiliated societies reaching from one end of the country to the other, the graduate school of Home Economics, and all the other activities which the Association maintains.

Meetings: The Association coöperated with the Manual Arts Section of the National Educational Association in its program at Chicago in July, 1912. In

June, the Administration Section held its meeting at the Lake Placid Club. The annual meeting of 1912 was held at Boston, December 30 and 31. The annual meeting for 1913 will be held June 21-27, at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Office of the Secretary: When the Association was organized, four years ago, the duties of secretary and treasurer were combined in a single office. The Secretary also edited the first two numbers of the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, so that in a sense all of the business of the Association was for a time centered in the hands of a single voluntary officer. Experience soon showed that there must be a division of responsibility. Arrangements were made for that permanent editorial control of the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, which, beginning in the year 1909, has continued to the present, and resulted in its remarkable development. One year ago, the offices of secretary and treasurer were separated and two voluntary officers have since filled these positions. For three years one of the large items of business connected with the Secretary's office, namely, the maintenance of the membership lists and the collection of dues, has been carried on in connection with the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS. There remains, however, a large amount of work connected with the planning for meetings, correspondence in connection with committees, inquiries on the part of women's clubs, educational institutions and private individuals, which altogether make up a burden of responsibility with its accompanying opportunity for service, that demand more of time and attention than a voluntary officer whose working hours are otherwise occupied can well afford to give. The Association needs to adjust these demands for service. There is needed a better apportionment in the delegation of committee work, so that a greater number of the members of the Association may bear the various parts of the work. Relief can thus be afforded the position of secretary.

There is another consideration, however, which the members of the Association should have in mind. The time will soon be at hand, if indeed, it is not here already, when the Association should organize a national office with a paid staff who shall devote themselves to that sort of nation-wide service which a voluntary Association such as ours can give. One has but to look about at similar organizations: the National Housing Association, the National Child Labor Committee, the Labor Legislation Association, the Playground Association, and many others, each with its well defined field of service in which a staff of specialists is furnishing leadership from a central office. Something like this is needed in the Home Economics field, at least through the next period in the development of the movement, until our national government shall, through the Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Education, or some other department, furnish this national directing agency, and even then, perhaps, the need for the voluntary central agency will still continue. Certain it is that our Home Economics Association might, through a salaried general secretary, develop a central bureau of information, which would be of vital service to school, household, and institution. A real beginning of such a central office has been made during the past six months in securing the full-time services of an assistant to the Editor, who has represented not only the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, but also the Association itself. We must build further on this foundation and not rest content until there shall be in active service an efficient staff at a central national office. Those parts of the Association's work which can be reduced to routine should be transferred to one central office, as the information service, the affiliated relationships with local societies and women's clubs, and the development of a

lecture service. There will still remain ample field for our best voluntary service.

The present Secretary has watched the development of the Association during the past four years with the greatest interest. In retiring from the office he wishes to express his appreciation of the coöperation unflinchingly extended to him by members of the Association.

Report from Executive Committee.—The Secretary presented a summary of the action taken by the Executive Committee (as presented elsewhere in its minutes) as regards (1) a Central Office for the Association and JOURNAL; (2) the meetings of the Association for 1913; and (3) the tentative budget for 1913; and, on motion, the meeting voted its approval of the action.

Report of Editorial Board.—The report of the JOURNAL Board for 1912, was presented by the Editor, Mrs. Abel.

As the material condition of a publication is judged by its subscription list, so we begin the annual report of our Editorial Board with our material condition. While the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS has not made a phenomenal growth during the past year, yet the increase has been steady, and the outlook is most encouraging. The mailing list now numbers 1800 in round numbers, over 300 of these being new subscribers enrolled in the past five months. A new system has recently been introduced which makes these figures mean more than the former method of computing subscribers. After several notices to the effect that the subscription had expired, and due notice that the magazine would be discontinued, those who have not paid have been cut off, so the subscription list is now almost entirely paid-up subscribers. It is planned during the coming year to make a great effort to secure new subscribers. With this in view a letter asking for names of those who might be interested was sent out with all bills for 1913. Although this was done only ten days ago, already many names have been sent in, and the prospects are that by our next annual meeting we shall have passed far beyond the 2000 mark.

The JOURNAL has been published five times during 1912, making a volume of 321 pages, including the index. An effort has been made to make each number of interest to all subscribers and for this reason it was deemed best not to publish any special numbers as has been done heretofore. There is an increasing demand for articles of interest to the housekeeper and when this department which is already in process of formation, is more advanced, we feel that we shall have much of interest to offer the persons interested in household management. There is also a steady demand for articles on the teaching of home economics in the grade and high schools and so far this demand has not been met. With an increasing subscription list many things become possible which hitherto have been out of the question: so that the plans for the coming year are bigger and broader than ever before. With this in mind we urge every one to bring the JOURNAL to the notice of any one interested in home economics, from all of its various aspects.

In November, 238 circular letters making a special offer to students in schools and colleges, of the four numbers, December, February, April, and June, for \$1 were sent out. Although late in the school year, already nearly one hundred student subscriptions have been sent in, and beginning with the school year of 1913 an effort will be made to many times increase this number.

The JOURNAL sent an exhibit of material, including a bound volume, reprints,

circulars, and other material to the Homemakers Exhibit and Conference in Chicago, in November, and although the returns have not been great, the display undoubtedly brought before the public the fact that such a magazine as the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS is published, and the indirect returns may be very great. This exhibit is available for the use of schools and colleges and affiliated Associations.

In the spring of 1912 a change was made in the Editorial Board, and in place of the eight associate editors, an editorial board composed of three members, Dr. Andrews, Dr. Langworthy, and Miss Lord, with the officers and members of the Council as collaborators, was chosen. In June a managing editor was appointed to devote full time to the JOURNAL and Association, who, now with an office assistant, has complete charge of the office work of the JOURNAL, and also does much of the work of the Association.

Recently nearly 5000 circulars advertising the work of the Association and of the JOURNAL have been sent out, and these circulars of a size to insert in letters will gladly be furnished all who will use them. It is also planned in the near future to make a thorough canvass of all public libraries, and of school and college libraries where home economics is taught.

So much for the work of the Editorial Board during the past year. As to the future too much cannot be said of the need of coöperation from all those who are interested in the growth of the Association and JOURNAL. We shall always be dependent upon the contributions of our friends for material for the JOURNAL. In order to maintain the high standard that we have set ourselves we must urge a feeling of greater responsibility upon our members to supply us with the kind of material that we need.

The appreciation of the Association for the voluntary services of the Editor and the Editorial Board was appropriately voiced by Miss Arnold; and on motion, it was voted to ask Mrs. Abel to serve as Chairman of the JOURNAL Board for 1913, with power to appoint additional members, and to make whatever arrangements are necessary for the proper conduct of the JOURNAL, the quarterly *Bulletin*, and other publications of the Association.

Administration Section.—Miss Arnold reported briefly regarding the meeting of the Administration Section at Lake Placid in June, 1912, and stated that the Section would meet at Cornell in June, 1913, at which time all interested in household and institution economics, or in education and training in administration, are invited to be present. Details can be secured later from the secretary of the Section, Miss Van Rensselaer of Cornell University.

Homemakers Section.—The chairman gave a brief statement of the activity of the Committee on Homemakers Section, of which Mrs. Lynden Evans is chairman, in coöperating in the Domestic Science Exhibit and Congress in Chicago in November, 1912. The committee on the Section is asked by the Executive Committee to take as one of its special problems the development of the National Home Economics Bureau of Information in connection with the JOURNAL-Association Office; and to provide a housekeepers' program for the convention at Cornell in June, 1913. All interested are asked to communicate with Mrs. Evans, 1240 Astor St., Chicago.

Graduate School of Home Economics.—Miss Lake, Managing Editor of the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, who attended the Graduate School of Home Economics at Michigan State College, Lansing, in July, 1912, spoke briefly of the School. The chairman said that one of the problems was the desirability of securing college credit for the courses; and the suggestion was made that the Graduate School might meet in turn with various university summer schools, as Chicago, California, Columbia, and Peabody Teachers College at Nashville. The suggestion was referred to the Committee with a request that its feasibility be considered and reported upon.

Committee on Constitution and By-Laws.—The Committee reported progress. Miss Talbot, by request, spoke of the problem of formal organization for such a voluntary society as ours. On motion it was voted to ask the Executive Committee to continue the Committee on Constitution and By-Laws, and to make any necessary provision so that it might complete its study of the problem by the next meeting of the Association.

Textiles Committee.—Progress was reported, and the Committee was asked to continue its work. Professor Mendel's suggestion that a hygienic and physiologic study of textiles be made, and Mrs. Dewey's request for a study of rational costume and reasonable control of fashions for women, were referred to the Committee with a request for a report.

Committee on Syllabus of Home Economics.—The chairman reported that the Syllabus of Home Economics is completed and in press. Suggestions are desired of more detailed outlines of its sections for a later edition; and especially of bibliographies to accompany each section. On motion, the Committee was continued and asked to prepare such bibliographies for printing.

Committee on Research in Household Economics.—The Chairman reported Dr. Kingsbury's suggestion that a committee be appointed on research in household economics, and on motion it was voted to ask Miss Kingsbury to act as chairman of such a committee, with power to add other members, and the Executive Committee was asked to provide a sum for the Committee's expenses.

Committee on International Congress at Ghent.—The Committee appointed by the Association, of which Miss Isabel Ely Lord is chairman, reported that the second International Congress on Domestic Economy, is to be held in Ghent, Belgium, June 15-17, 1913. "The Committee assures any Americans who can attend the Congress of a hearty welcome and an interesting meeting. The Bureau of University Travel, Boston, is arranging for a special party, and can give information as to costs. The meeting is in conjunction with the 10th International Congress of Agriculture (June 8-13) and the 3d International Congress of Women Farmers (June 13-15). The Ghent Exhibition will also be in progress. The Committee hopes that many Americans interested in home economics will be able to attend the Congress." The report of the Committee was adopted and the Committee continued.

Committee on Publicity reported through its chairman, Mr. Maurice Le Bosquet, as follows, and the report was adopted:

This Committee was appointed in June 1912 to give suggestions for increasing the membership of the Association and to increase the subscription list of the JOURNAL. Shortly afterwards and later, the following suggestions were made to the managing editor of the JOURNAL.

First, it seemed necessary to provide something beyond the privilege of voting for the \$1.00 which the members of the Association pay; second, to increase the membership to any great extent it seemed desirable to offer more of direct interest to housekeepers. With this end in view, we advised (1) development of the Central Bureau of Information and Advice to Housekeepers as outlined in an editorial in the JOURNAL; (2) development of Loan Library scheme, to apply especially to all books, pamphlets, etc., reviewed in the JOURNAL; (3) to make a special department for home-makers in the JOURNAL; (4) perhaps to do something for club work in home economics; (5) to publish a quarterly *Bulletin of the American Home Economics Association*, which should in no way compete with the JOURNAL but be used for notices, special articles of interest, and particularly for promoting the Association. This would be the least expensive method of giving the Association and JOURNAL publicity, for a quarterly *Bulletin* could be entered under second class mailing privileges. In regard to the JOURNAL it was suggested that an endeavor be made to exchange free advertising space with a number of journals. Suggestions were made for sending strong letters and follow-up letters to all former subscribers of the JOURNAL, schools, public libraries and especially to all members of the Association asking their coöperation.

A number of the suggestions given have been carried out—the first number of the *Bulletin* has been sent to all members, though the promotion number is still to come. A good many letters and circulars have been sent out and the subscription list of the JOURNAL is increasing. Very little has been done towards interesting the home-makers. This is a difficult undertaking at best; but it seems that the JOURNAL might be somewhat less technical without being less scientific.

The report was adopted.

Committee on Legislation.—The Committee reported through its Chairman, Mr. Andrews, that it had been following the legislation now pending in Congress which proposes grants to home economics education: (1) The Page-Wilson bill which would give aid to secondary, normal, college, and extension education in agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics—an omnibus bill for vocational education; (2) the Lever-Smith bill which would aid extension teaching in agriculture and home economics solely; (3) the Smoot bill which would give aid to research work in home economics in the Agricultural Experimental Stations; (4) the Wilson bill for establishing a bureau of domestic science in the United States Department of Agriculture. The attitude of the Committee has been favorable to the support of all these bills, rather than of any one of them exclusively. At the hearing of the Page-Wilson bill the Committee submitted a statement and in advance of the hearing sent a post-card notice to members of the Association, asking them to write their representatives and senators. The present situation in Congress indicates that favorable action is likely soon upon either the Lever bill or the more inclusive Page-Wilson bill. The Smoot bill for research and the Wilson bill for the Domestic Science bureau will not be pressed, apparently, for the present. Members are urged to secure copies of all bills and to write their representatives. The Committee

urges further that, on Home Economics Day, December 3, 1913, the matter of proposed federal legislation be considered in schools, colleges, and clubs, and resolutions adopted and petitions signed. The request of the United States Bureau of Education for an additional appropriation providing for a home economics expert on its staff also merits active support on our part.

The report was accepted and the Committee continued.

Treasurer's report:

1. ASSOCIATION ACCOUNT.

<i>Receipts</i>		\$959.80
<i>Expenditures:</i>		
Repayment of loan.....	\$195.72	
Conventions.....	248.60	
Secretary's office.....	258.67	
Treasurer's office.....	98.26	
Committees.....	146.84	\$948.09
		<hr/>
Balance on hand.....		\$11.71

2. JOURNAL ACCOUNT.

<i>Receipts:</i>		
Balance from 1911.....	\$641.60	
Repayment of Association loan.....	195.72	
Subscriptions.....	3316.80	
Reprints, etc.....	322.09	
Advertising.....	360.00	\$4836.21
		<hr/>
<i>Expenditures:</i>		
Journal printing.....	\$2354.61	
Editor's Office.....	228.81	
Treasurer's office.....	560.12	
Managing editor's office.....	878.02	
Advertising director.....	25.00	
Journal committee.....	105.01	
Miscellaneous printing.....	124.55	
Refunds.....	4.80	\$4280.92
		<hr/>
Journal balance on hand.....		\$555.29

3. ADMINISTRATION SECTION ACCOUNT.

1911 balance \$29.90; expenditures \$29.90.....No balance

4. PERMANENT ASSOCIATION FUND ACCOUNT.

1911 balance \$150; no expenditures.....Balance \$150

Committee on Audit.—This Committee was asked to complete its report and transmit it to the Executive Committee.

[DEPARTMENT]

CF

Ellen H. Richards Memorial Fund.—Mr. Andrews, acting chairman of the Committee reported as follows and the report was adopted and the Committee continued:

In June, 1911, a meeting of friends of Mrs. Richards held at Boston resulted in a plan to raise a national fund of \$100,000 as the Ellen H. Richards Home Economics Fund, and the appointment by the Association of the following Fund Committee: Mrs. William H. Barrett, chairman, Dr. C. F. Langworthy, Miss Isabel Hyams, Miss Ednah A. Rich, Dr. Benjamin R. Andrews. The chairman of the Committee began the canvass by compiling a list of 130,000 names to be solicited personally for the uniform sum of \$1.00. State chairmen were secured who started the canvass in Massachusetts, New York, Illinois, Utah, and Texas during 1911 and the first half of 1912, and plans had been made in certain other states. Experience with the list suggested that since the list was necessarily made up of published lists of scientific societies, and similar changing lists, it was in many cases unreliable, or that the method of personal canvass was uncertain.

Up to September 20, 1912, there had been turned in by collectors \$668.72; (in addition, of the amounts since transmitted to the Committee a large share, perhaps one-half of that received to date, is due to the canvass based on the original list). The expenses of the canvass to September 20, 1912, incurred for the list and printed matter for solicitors, was \$359.82; leaving a net balance on September 20, 1912, of \$309.00. At a meeting of the Committee on that date it was decided, temporarily at least, to abandon the use of the list, and to initiate a rapid canvass of the members of the Association, and of schools, colleges, and clubs interested in home economics. Subscriptions were to be sought in any sum, rather than the uniform amount of \$1.00; each person canvassed was asked to become himself a canvasser, or at least to suggest names of persons who might contribute; a plan was drafted for observing December 3, 1912, the seventieth anniversary of Mrs. Richards' birth, as Home Economics Day in schools, colleges, and clubs; and a Richards Home Economics Calendar was projected to be sold for the benefit of the Fund. At Mrs. Barrett's request, Mr. Andrews undertook the acting-chairmanship of the Committee, with authority to secure clerical assistance.

The acting-chairman prepared a circular asking subscriptions for the Fund, and also a program for observing Home Economics Day. Five papers were printed to aid the observance: two sketches of Mrs. Richards' life, one by Miss Caroline Hunt, and one by Miss Frances Stern, and three sketches, of Xenophon's *Oeconomicus*, of Count Rumford, and Catherine Beecher, respectively, by Dr. Andrews. The Fund circular was sent to members of the Association and subscribers to the JOURNAL, and the Fund circular with the Home Economics Day program and in part, the accompanying papers, to 100 colleges, 130 normal schools, 700 high schools, 300 superintendents of schools, and 1000 women's clubs. The Richards Calendar was edited by Miss Hyams, and its cost guaranteed by fifteen members of the Association. During November the canvass had the full-time services, and in December part-time services, of Mrs. Bertha Fletcher Lent, a graduate of Teachers College, who did much to make this necessarily rapid canvass a success. From September 20 to December 20, 1912, there has been received \$995.60 and expenditures of \$372.64 have been incurred. Toward the latter, the Executive Committee of the Association granted \$50.00; leaving net receipts from September 20 to December 20, 1912, of

\$672.96. This with the net balance September 20 of \$309.00, makes the total balance on hand December 20, 1912, \$981.96. In addition upwards of \$250.00 is reported in the hands of collectors; making a net total for the Fund up to December 20 of approximately \$1250.00. It is important to remember that in such a canvass as this, every effort is cumulative—the canvass of 1911 as well as the recent three months' effort would long continue to show results, if nothing further were to be done. It is more important to realize that the canvass is succeeding and that complete success is possible if all will unite in a vigorous prosecution of it.

In view of these facts, therefore, the Richards Fund Committee recommends the following measures, in order that the Association may practically dedicate itself to the establishment of this living memorial of our leader, and that the canvass may be continued to a successful culmination:

(1) That a person be employed at the Association office, who is especially qualified to carry forward the canvass.

(2) That a more complete statement of the practical usefulness of such a Fund for Publication and Research be drawn up, to be published as an Association Bulletin and circulated widely under second-class postage entry.

(3) That publications under the imprint of the Richards Home Economics Fund be issued at the earliest possible date, thus furnishing a demonstration of the usefulness of such a fund.

(4) That all Association members be urged to refer to the Fund in public lectures (several members already regularly do so); and to secure press reports on the Fund and Home Economics Day (one member recently secured a half-page illustrated article in the *New York Times*, and another articles in several New Orleans papers).

(5) That schools and colleges form Richards Home Economics Clubs of their students, who may thus interest themselves in the Fund; that the alumni of such institutions be reached by alumni committees.

(6) That each member of the Association take personal interest in the canvass; canvassing personally, organizing methods of raising money locally, and sending names to the Committee.

(7) That affiliated local societies be asked to make the Fund canvass a chief item on their program for 1913 appointing a special committee of officers, and making plans for raising funds by entertainments, etc.; undertaking the canvass for states and cities as far as possible.

(8) That ways of raising funds by sales, entertainments, lectures, exhibits of the history of home economics, pageants, etc., be devised, and published.

(9) That a Home Economics Day program for 1913 be drawn up early in the year by a special committee and published in the Association *Bulletin*.

(10) That there be considered the seeking of large subscriptions from public-spirited people of wealth; individual members of the Association may find persons willing to give \$100, \$500, \$1000, or more to this practical agency for the home.

(11) That the interest of federated women's clubs be sought, especially in the observance of the Richards' Home Economics Day, December 3, 1913; and that when the Decker Endowment Fund is secured, that local clubs having household economic departments be asked to raise contributions to the Richards Fund.

The report was adopted and the committee continued.

Committee on Resolutions: The Committee presented, through its chairman, Miss Anna Barrows, the following report which, on motion, was adopted:

WHEREAS, We, the members of the American Home Economics Association, have enjoyed the hospitality extended by Simmons College at our fifth annual meeting, be it

Resolved, That we express to this institution our hearty appreciation of its generous entertainment in providing so comfortable a place of meeting and so attractive a luncheon;

Resolved, That we give especial thanks to President Le Favour and Dean Arnold and their associates for making possible so profitable and enjoyable a session;

Resolved, That we extend our thanks to Mrs. Stannard and Mrs. Hyde of the New England Association, who were chiefly instrumental in making the dinner on Wednesday evening in honor of Mrs. Woolman an occasion of unusual pleasure to the guests;

Resolved, That we express our deep regret at the absence of our President, Miss Isabel Bevier, but we recognize that the call homeward was the right one for her to follow. We take this means of expressing to Miss Bevier our hearty appreciation of the efficient way in which she has filled the position made doubly difficult by the passing of our first leader.

Election of Officers.—The Election Committee reported the returns from the nominating ballots sent out by mail to members of the Association. Mrs. Woolman and Dr. Langworthy, whose names were among those announced as receiving votes which placed them in the list of candidates for office, asked to have their names withdrawn. The request was acceded to. The following names were then presented, and on motion, by unanimous vote, the Secretary was authorized to cast the ballot of the Association for these officers who were declared elected:

President, for 1913: Miss Sarah Louise Arnold, Simmons College, Boston.

Vice-Presidents, for 1913: Miss Martha Van Rensselaer, Cornell University, Ithaca; Miss Abby L. Marlatt, University of Wisconsin; Benjamin R. Andrews, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Secretary, for 1913: Miss Isabel Ely Lord, Pratt Institute.

Treasurer, for 1913: Frederick B. Pratt, who was chosen treasurer by the annual meeting, was unable to accept the position; the Executive Committee have therefore filled the vacancy by electing Dr. Charles F. Langworthy, U. S. Department of Agriculture, treasurer for 1913.

Members of the Council for five years beginning 1913: Miss Isabel Bevier, University of Illinois; A. C. True, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington; Miss Agnes Harris, Florida State College, Tallahassee; Miss Lilla A. Harkins, Montana State College, Bozeman; Miss Bertha Terrill, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont.

Member of Nominating Committee for five years, beginning 1913: Miss Anna Barrows, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The business being concluded the chairman asked Mrs. Abel to address the convention.

At the conclusion of Mrs. Abel's address, the convention was declared adjourned.

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS,
Secretary, American Home Economics Association.

MINUTES OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

The Executive Committee of the American Home Economics Association met at Simmons College, Boston, December 30, 1912. A list of items of business had been sent in advance to members. Several members who could not be present sent written opinions. The following matters were considered and agreed to:

Office of the Association and American Home Economics Bureau.—The JOURNAL Committee reported to the Executive Committee the employment of a managing editor, beginning July 1, 1912, who devotes full time to the work of the JOURNAL and the Association; compensation of \$75 per month from July 1 to December 31, 1912 was charged four-fifths to the JOURNAL budget and one-fifth to the Association budget. The managing editor has thus practically maintained an office for the Association and the JOURNAL at Forest Hill (near Baltimore), Maryland; but the demands already upon the office are more than it can meet. For the JOURNAL, the Managing Editor, under the direction of the Editor, prepares material for the printer, reads all proofs, prepares the make-up for the JOURNAL, collects subscriptions, canvasses for subscriptions, receives money, and transfers it to the Treasurer for deposit and disbursement. For the Association, the Managing Editor keeps records of membership, collects dues and transfers them to the Treasurer for disbursement, canvasses for new members, edits the Bulletin of the Association, and carries on much routine correspondence.

The Secretary of the Association reported upon the duties and services at present attaching to that office, including correspondence, enquiries, assistance rendered to committees, services in connection with arrangements for annual and other meetings, and other responsibilities involving at frequent intervals expenditures for clerical help. It was the opinion of the Committee that economy would be served by transferring the clerical and routine duties of the Secretary, and possibly some of those of the Treasurer, to a clerk or office secretary to be employed by the Association.

A third consideration arose in the proposal to develop a national clearing house of information for housekeepers, which might serve as a model Housekeepers' Bureau. The Association is already rendering service of this kind, and once organized, it might be an example for local organizations, public libraries, and other institutions in the establishment of Housekeepers' Bureaus.

After full discussions it was voted to set aside \$500 in the budget of the Association for 1913, which by coöperation with the JOURNAL budget, might provide the salary of an additional worker to be associated with the managing editor, who might as clerk or office secretary, be responsible for the current business of the Association, including all current office duties of the elected Secretary of the Association, correspondence, enquiries, relations with affiliated societies, and committee undertakings which may be referred to such an official for execution; and who, while primarily serving the Association might develop such an American Home Economics Bureau.

By vote the JOURNAL Committee was directed to make necessary arrangements for securing such an additional worker and organizing a national office of the Association and JOURNAL and Home Economics Bureau.

By vote, the Committee on Housekeepers' Section, Mrs. Lynden Evans, Chairman, was asked to coöperate in making plans for the development of the Home Economics Bureau.

By vote, it was resolved, that we call the attention of librarians to the desirability of establishing a Housekeepers' Room in every public library which shall provide collections of books, pamphlet material, government bulletins, reports of boards of health, and other publications bearing upon housekeeping problems, to be administered by a person trained in library science and in household science who shall thus develop a local Housekeepers' Bureau of information, ready to respond to calls in person, by letter, or by telephone; and it was resolved that a sub-committee be appointed to seek coöperation with the librarians' organizations in investigating the feasibility of this proposal, to report at the meeting at Cornell University in June, 1913.

Memorial Fund Canvass.—The Ellen H. Richards Memorial Fund Committee reported progress, and asked for instructions regarding the expenses incurred in the canvass. The Executive Committee voted an appropriation of \$50 from 1912 funds in the Association treasury and directed that the balance of expenditures to date, December 31, 1912, be met from the receipts of the canvass; and further voted that an appropriation be made in the Association budget for 1913 for expenses of the Fund Committee. It was voted to prosecute the canvass vigorously during 1913, and to arrange for the transfer of the canvass from the Secretary's office to that of the office secretary to be created; and to provide for the observance of Home Economics Day, December 3, 1913, and on succeeding anniversaries.

Financial Relations of Sections to Association.—The following minute was proposed: There is but one "Membership," that of the National Association, and sections may not establish a separate membership fee; the Association shall make an annual grant in the budget for expenses of sections; if desired, sections may raise additional funds by subscriptions or contributions, supplementing the budget allowance—such sectional funds shall be deposited in the Association treasury and held as a distinct fund subject to draft on the order of the section. After discussion, action was postponed to the next meeting of the committee.

Meetings.—1. The annual meeting of 1913 shall be held at Cornell University, June 21-27 (or dates to be determined), with a program providing adequately for general interests, and for those of the Administration Section and the Housekeepers' Section; the President shall appoint a special program committee for the general Association, and provide sub-committees from the two sections, with the President ex-officio chairman of the Committee. This shall be the one national meeting of the Association for 1913, which the entire membership of the Association shall be urged to attend.

2. The Association shall coöperate with the Manual Training Section of the National Education Association at Salt Lake City, Utah, July 7-14, and shall provide in addition at least one separate session under the auspices of the American Home Economics Association; the coöperation of the Utah State Association shall be at once sought for this meeting, and a general officer of the Association, the President if possible, or such officer as the President shall appoint as substi-

tute, shall be delegated to attend this meeting. The President shall offer coöperation to the Manual Training Section, and appoint a program committee; the Utah Association shall be asked to care for local arrangements.

3. The Association shall offer coöperation by contributing speakers, papers, or accredited delegates to the meetings of such related societies as the International School Hygiene Congress at Buffalo, 1913; wherever feasible it will organize local home economics meetings for one or more sessions in connection with related societies as the Economic, Sociological, and Science Associations, the Southern Education Congress, etc., thus bringing together Home Economics workers in different sections of the country; the President is empowered to place arrangements for such possible meetings in the hands of local Home Economics societies, or to appoint special committees as seems desirable.

4. There shall be held a meeting of the Association at San Francisco during the Panama-Pacific Exposition of 1915.

Budget.—The Finance Committee reported as follows and the report was adopted:

1. That the following tentative budget of the Association's funds be made for 1913, subject to revision by the Executive Committee:

Receipts (estimated) from dues.....	\$1100.00
Proposed Expenditures:	
Meetings.....	\$200.00
<i>Bulletin of Home Economics</i>	150.00
Committees, including Syllabus, Legislation, Constitution, Textiles, Research in House- hold Economics, Richards Memorial Fund. . .	120.00
Administration Section and Housekeepers' Sec- tion, each \$40.....	80.00
Central Office.....	500.00
Office Expenses of President and Secretary.....	50.00
Total.....	\$1100.00

2. The expenditures of receipts from the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS is delegated to the Committee of the JOURNAL.

Syllabus Committee.—The Syllabus Committee reported that the Syllabus of Home Economics was completed and ready for printing; that the next step should be a request for criticisms and suggestions after the syllabus is in printed form; and that the Committee should be continued and should next proceed to compile bibliographies to accompany each section of the Syllabus. The Executive Committee adopted the report, and directed the Editorial Board of the JOURNAL to arrange for printing the Syllabus as a separate pamphlet in such form as it should deem best.

Housekeepers' Section.—The organization of the Housekeepers' Section was discussed, and it was voted to ask Mrs. Lynden Evans to continue as chairman of the committee to promote this section, and to associate with her on the committee representatives of related organizations.

Related Organizations.—It was voted to request related organizations to be

represented by accredited delegates, without vote, at the meeting of the Council of the Association and at the annual business meeting of the Association.

B. R. ANDREWS,
Secretary.

December 31, 1912.

MINUTES OF MEETING OF THE COUNCIL.

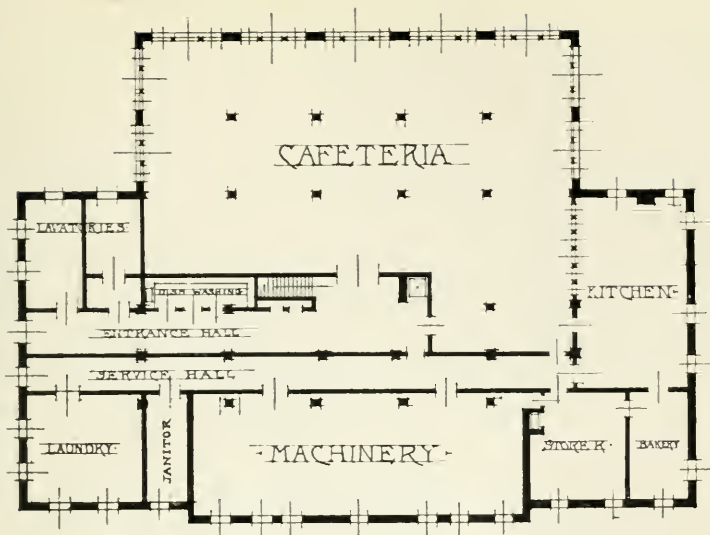
The Council of the American Home Economics Association met at Simmons College, Boston, December 31, 1912, at 3.30 p.m. There was reported to the Council the business transacted by the Executive Committee. Communications were read from members of the Council, who were unable to be present, as follows:

Professor Mendel suggested that the hygienic and physiologic characteristics of clothing be made a subject of study by the Association.

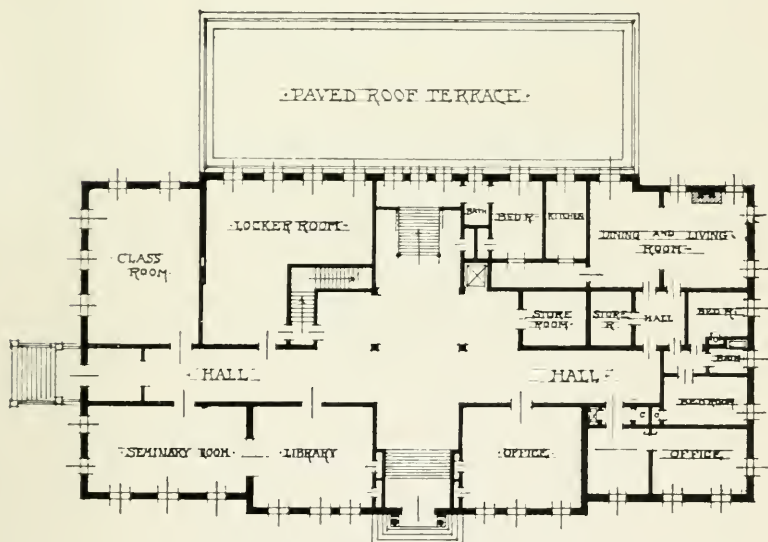
Miss Bevier advised that no real separation should be allowed to arise between the Association and the JOURNAL, as regards finances; a better organization requires more emphasis upon the Executive Committee and Council—the Council should voice the opinions of a larger number; the Secretary's office should be a permanent one, and the Secretary should be a traveling officer to encourage local societies; the Memorial Fund must be pushed—one step would be to get *The Life of Ellen Richards* in every public and school library, another to print early in the quarterly *Bulletin* a program for Home Economics Day, 1913; local societies should be asked to study some local problems and send reports on it to the JOURNAL, and the Association should provide a central clearing house for such local associations.

Miss Nutting urged the necessity of more thorough provision in the programs of meetings, in committee work, and in publications, for the non-teacher members of the Association; there are perhaps one hundred dietitians in New York City alone and they are not in any way now reached by the Association, although it was formed to aid institution workers as well as teachers; the financial resources of the Association or of the Richards Fund could be increased by a \$5.00 sustaining membership—students in colleges could give a small annual subscription, 25 cents perhaps, to the Fund; there should be a salaried Executive Secretary for the Association, and in time a Field Secretary; the JOURNAL should be made a monthly at the earliest possible date—better a monthly than the present two infrequent publications (quarterly JOURNAL and quarterly *Bulletin*); housing is a topic which the Association should next stress—textiles as well as dietetics have had much attention.

Mrs. Dewey offered suggestions as follows: The financial relations of sections and the Association need to be more explicit; printed proceedings of sectional meetings should be published promptly as separate numbers; the Association might well consider at the Cornell meeting "Time Studies," and "Living Wages in Household Occupations;" in helping local associations with their programs, syllabuses might be useful; there is wide opportunity for a thoroughly trained woman of wide experience who is a good speaker, in the employ of the Association as secretary—part of her expenses could be met by local associations; extra numbers of the JOURNAL might well appear, instead of the distinct *Bulletin*; it is time to make a campaign



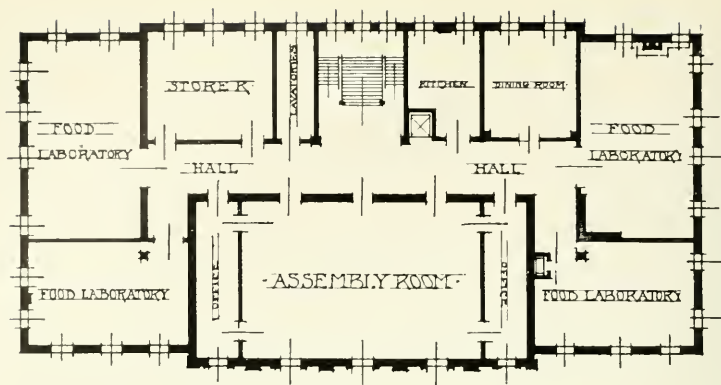
— BASEMENT PLAN —



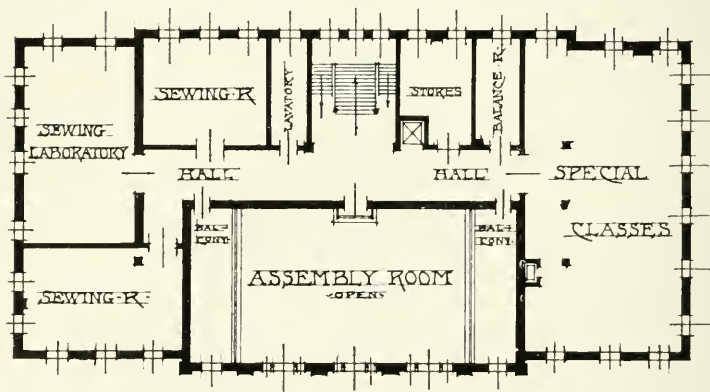
— FIRST FLOOR PLAN —

Cornell University, Home Economics Building.

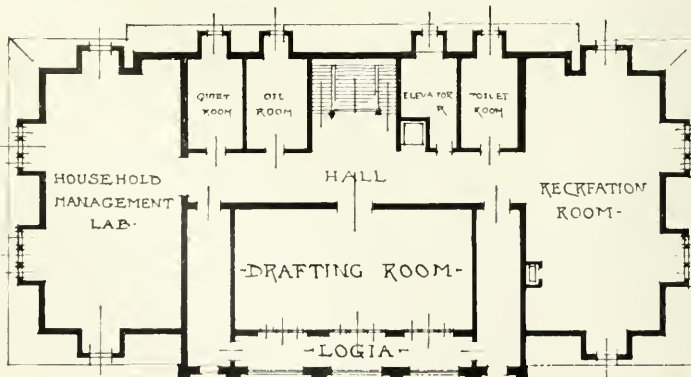
(See page 107.)



- SECOND FLOOR PLAN -



- THIRD FLOOR PLAN -



- FOURTH FLOOR PLAN -

on the ethical aspects of dress, with a special effort to induce educated, thoughtful women to dress sensibly, and to seek concerted action through clubs; finances can be increased by establishing grades of membership, \$5.00 associates, \$10.00 patrons, etc., and inviting men as well as women to join.

Miss Harris, of the Florida State College, wrote of the observance of Home Economics Day and urged that its observance be continued in the future; pressing problems in work there are: (1) the course of study, (2) where to place college students graduates who have had work in high school, (3) the content of short courses and (4) what to do for women's clubs.

Miss Gearing of the University of Texas wrote of the recent organization of a State Home Economics Association in that State of which Miss Babb of the State College at Denton is secretary.

These, and other suggestions arising in the meeting were, after discussion, referred to the Executive Committee for action.

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS,
Secretary.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, HOME ECONOMICS BUILDING.

We present in this issue the front elevation and ground plans of the new Home Economics Building at Cornell University. As we think these ground plans will be of more help and interest to those who are interested in Home Economics buildings than the pictures of the buildings alone, we hope to give more of these in the future. We quote from the Cornell University Circular:

"In the basement of the building is a cafeteria that will seat four to five hundred persons. Here students who wish to specialize in problems of caring for large numbers will have practice in providing food in quantity. While the cafeteria will provide a wholesome noonday lunch, it is intended to furnish a practical laboratory in institutional management. On the first floor are offices, classrooms, and a small living apartment. Each year senior students will have opportunity in turn to live in the apartment under the guidance of an instructor. The problem of the small household may thus be worked out in a practical way. On the second floor is a small audience room to be used for class work and for meetings relating to the work of women, particularly to that branch of the latter having to do with household economics. Food laboratories, offices, and a practice dining-room and kitchen are on this floor. On the third floor are laboratories for a study of clothing, sewing, and millinery. On the fourth floor is a large drafting room for work in house planning, furnishing, and decorating, and in designing connected with sewing and millinery."

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS FOR THE TEACHING OF HOUSEHOLD ECONOMY.

The following Committee on Second International Congress for the Teaching of Household Economy, June, 1913, has been appointed by the American Home Economics Association: *Chairman:* Miss Isabel Ely Lord, Director of the School of Household Science and Arts, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, New York; *Mrs.* Mary Hinman Abel, Editor JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, Roland Park Branch, Baltimore, Maryland; Dr. Charles F. Langworthy, of the United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.; Miss Marion Talbot, Dean of Women, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois; Miss Ellen Alden Huntington, Director of the School of Home Economics, Agricultural College, Logan, Utah.

ADMINISTRATION SECTION.¹

With the suggestion of small coöperative laundries for farmers' wives came the question as to the advisability of combination of creamery and laundry, and whether the same power might be utilized for both; also the question of employing for the collection of laundry the same wagon that is used for dairy products. This latter point brought up the question of possible contamination. It was also suggested that a great need among the girls on the farm was that they should receive training in laundry methods so that they might run a laundry in the country. These girls are eager to earn money but do not want to consider going out washing in the old way. Those offering courses in laundry management replied by saying that the demand for just such workers was very great; and that girls from the country would find it to their advantage to enter this line of work. It was strongly urged also that a movement be started to determine plans for the marking of linen; that standards be established; and that "hit or miss" marking be prohibited.

¹ From discussion at Administration Section, American Home Economics Association, Lake Placid, June, 1912.

THE Journal of Home Economics

Home, Institution, School

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APRIL, 1913

No. 2

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T H E

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No. 2

RESEARCH RELATED TO HOUSEHOLD ECONOMICS.¹

SUSAN M. KINGSBURY.

Several of the programs of the American Historical Association during the past week have been devoted to the question of profitable fields for research. Such subjects have been discussed at previous sessions of this Association but never, so far as I am aware, has a series of meetings been given up to that discussion. Certainly no field has at present more reach nor is more in need of investigation than the subject of household economics, both as applied to the subject as a whole and as applied to any one of its phases. Therefore our subject.

In the business world, so called, individuals are acquainted with the minute details of their business, and in countless numbers of business houses the actual cost and profit of every transaction is figured to many decimal places. While the question of economics of cost and profit is not worked out in the business world, as a whole, satisfactorily, and certainly not in our public institutions nor in our government, a start has been made through necessity by the individual business man or the corporation. But in the business of housekeeping, whether on a small or large scale, no system has been devised by which costs can be known or a comparison of costs can be made, and I venture to say, that in very few institutions do we know actual costs.

Sometime ago through the senior seminar course in Simmons College we endeavored to find a satisfactory system of accounting for institutional housekeeping and to discover whether special systems

¹ Presented at the annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Boston, 1912.

were being used in various state and private institutions. We were unsuccessful. For example, one institution was endeavoring to find out the cost of food in comparison with the cost of housing. As a result the class was enabled to study very carefully the statistics it had gathered and then work out the cost of rent, light, heat, service, and food, endeavoring to distinguish between the service for lodging and the service for the dining room. But these figures could be at best only approximate because of the way in which bills had been kept and because of the difficulty of discovering a unit by which costs could be distributed. The difficulty in attaining these results and the necessary inaccuracy due to approximation is simply an illustration of the fact that we find no true economics of the household, that is, the knowledge of how to secure the best return for the least expenditure, because we find no system measuring return and no plan of recording expenditure.

These, then, are two of the large fields which an organization like the American Home Economics Association ought to enter, enabling the world at large to know what the measure of the return may be and what the system of expenditure should be. Such a program, worked at unremittingly for a series of years by individuals or graduate students or a committee of the Association, when presented would command the respect of all economics associations. They would perceive at once that such constructive work could not be overlooked.

There are, of course, minor fields which are clearly important for investigation, as, for instance, that field which deals with legislation as affecting the status of the household. The laws existing and needed for the regulation of the production of foods ought to be presented more carefully, more clearly, more forcefully than they yet have been. As for example, the laws affecting production of canned goods, ice cream, confectionery, baked foods, ought to be classified and simplified both for the purpose of instruction to our students in household economics and for the purpose of reference for our housewives. Then those laws needed for the regulation of the distribution of foods, as for example, of milk, of bread, of foods in shops, ought to be studied. And when all this is done, a body of knowledge should have been acquired from which to devise the best or most feasible laws and the right line of approach for each community. Then the ideal would be at hand. Standardization of the laws affecting the conditions under which our men, women, and children live is far more important than standardization of the laws affecting the conditions

under which our men, women, and children work. Just as our Labor Legislation Association has first stated carefully and presented to the public the actual laws existing and has then prepared a scheme for uniform legislation to be introduced into the various states of the Union, so this Association might well familiarize itself with existing laws affecting the production, distribution, and consumption of foods and as affecting the general conditions of living, and then educate the public to demand the best of such laws.

Before illustrating the methods by which a study of legislation might be carried on, we note that there are questions of administration which need investigation, administration as applied to the home, administration as applied to business, that is, as applied to the places where production, or distribution, or consumption of food is carried on for profit by an individual or group of individuals, and administration as applied to the combination of home and business, namely, public and private institutions. Administration as applied to individuals is also a field most important for study—individuals in their private capacities as producers for the home and as consumers in the home. Administration as applied to any of these four groups should be worked out on the basis of the system of organization, studying the question of supervision, service, methods of buying and systems of accounting—of keeping a record of what is bought, when it is bought and where it is bought, and the grade of satisfaction. Such a system of accountancy would then enable us to determine the efficiency of the institution or of the individual in the business of living. One of our greatest needs of the present moment is some sort of an account book worked out and tested by institutions, as for instance, in our own dormitories. Although it may seem at the moment a large expense, the need is to discover whether such a system of accounting is a saving or not. To the individual an account book is often considered not worth the trouble of keeping, the return not equal to the effort. And he may be right. For the institution, I believe that the theorist from the department of economics or from the department of household arts cannot determine the question. It must be worked out in an institution as a laboratory.

With regard to values: it is hardly necessary to urge upon this group the necessity for fuller knowledge of values as applied to textiles or foods. Thousands of various opportunities flash to our minds. Values in silk, cotton, laces, fabrics, furnishings, prepared foods of all types, canned goods, baker's bread in comparison with home-

made bread, baker's cake in comparison with home-made cake, cereals put up in packages as compared with cereals in bulk, and hundreds of others. These are questions we are all dabbling in, but the trouble is that we dabble. Such experiments as are being carried on by the government in various stations have returned large profits but the difficulty is that the investment is too small. We need to stimulate our students and our teachers and most of all our housewives (who must first be educated) to more careful record-keeping concerning all of these questions, and then it will be the business of this Association to interpret the returns.

May I now call your attention to some beginnings of such studies which we have made in Simmons College but only as an example of how fruitful an investigation of this type may prove. We have a course entitled the Economics of Consumption. Our first question is, What does the state say with regard to the affairs of the household? So our starting point is the study of the relation of the household and the housekeeper to the law. We have, therefore, worked out in chart form the federal pure food law and the laws of the various states of the Union affecting the regulation of lunch rooms, bakeries, or any food establishment and the requirements as to preparation of dairy products, ice creams, meat products, canned goods, and in addition, the milk regulations in the state of Massachusetts and the town regulations as to milk in Boston, in towns of Worcester County and in several large cities of the United States. We have also charted the municipal regulations with regard to preparation and sale of ice cream in Atlanta, Cleveland, New York City, Salt Lake City, San Francisco, Seattle, and Boston, and eight other cities of Massachusetts.

To illustrate: The charting of the federal law reveals three subdivisions:

(1) The definition of terms, such as food, drugs, adulteration, misbranding, and guaranty.

(2) The standards with regard to animal products, vegetable products, preservatives and coloring matter.

(3) The procedure under the act classified as to the agency for enforcement, methods of collection of samples, analysis, publication, procedure for accusation, and penalties.

Again, the regulations with regard to waitresses in the city of Boston were secured from thirty establishments and the data tabulated in such a way as to reveal: hours of labor—beginning and ending, hours allowed for meals, total hours per day, per week; the maximum, minimum,

and approximate amount received in tips, allowance for meals and laundry, deduction for breakage, vacation, and absences, and provisions for seasonal fluctuation; absences: average number and the methods of filling vacancies; duties: side work and required responsibility for number of seats at the tables; training: the agency through which the help was secured, the provisions with regard to recommendations, where skilled labor was obtained, the length of time for the employee to acquire skill, the attitude toward a training school, and the methods used for giving instruction; provisions for health and comfort; provisions for carrying trays; provisions for stools and rest rooms; and requirements with regard to uniforms.

A study worth continuing has been one with regard to the values of canned goods. In two successive years students have secured samples of canned vegetables, fruits, and meats in various sections of Boston and its suburbs and tests have then been made by the sampling process. The results compared both as to quality and as to cost have provided something like a white list. But more important, from the point of view of the student and the teacher, were the results which proved that price and value are not synonymous. For instance, the first choice in peas is found to cost 15 cents, the second 18 cents, while the maximum price charged is 18 to 25 cents and the usual 12 to 15 cents. In corn the first choice costs 12 cents whereas the maximum price charged is 14 cents and usual price 12 cents. In tomatoes the best value coincided with the maximum, 14 cents, which is two cents more than the usual price. In beans the best choice costs 17 cents whereas the maximum price is 20 cents, the usual price 15 cents and the minimum price 8 cents. Results of such experiments could not be printed until a sufficient number of samples of each brand had been examined to ensure a feeling of security, neither could they be published until a large variety of brands had been tested.

Without proceeding further with illustrations of the type of original work which needs to be done, and I may add which is possible to be done with seniors and graduate students, may I call your attention to a study from the point of view of the consumer which has been made, based upon the yearly expenditures of a group of the college girls. We must remember that we are concerned here with a selected group which is not to be compared with any other group of consumers, so far as I can see. A girl of college age and of the same circumstances as many college students, would probably be working and therefore earning, whereas the girl not at work would

have certain social responsibilities, and standards of expenditure would vary.

However, as an example of the method of approach to the problem of consumption this study may prove of value. The actual results I am presenting in full as being perhaps useful to members of this association who are coming in contact with college women and especially who may be interested in young women who are about to enter college. The study was made in four different years, 1907, 1908, 1909, and 1912, and is based upon the returns of between 40-50 students each year who were able and willing to give exact information, most of the dormitory students having been approached. In most cases returns which were not sufficiently complete were excluded and yet the variation seems to be such as to warrant a belief that the returns were valid and typical. Since these studies were made at different times a difference in treatment crept in whereby the average expense was considered in the years 1908 and 1909 and the mode was taken in 1907 and 1912. Traveling expenses have been omitted altogether but, as far as possible, expenditure for clothes in the summer vacation preparatory to entering college was included. In 1908 and 1909 one figure only was returned for minor expenses, including medical aid, amusements, eatables, carfares, church, telephone, Christmas, and incidentals. I do not believe it is of significance that the average return for 1907 is higher than for the other years. It will be noted that the students have taken the maximum figure for board as being the sum which the largest number paid. Since that time a larger number of rooms have become available in dormitories and boarding houses at the lower figure. Finally the lowest estimate as worked out by the students in two different years and corrected by the instructor is presented in order that no friend or parent may consider it safe to accept the minimum expense in planning to send a student to the college. While it would certainly seem that a student should be able to carry her expenses at about \$500, the total as indicated in the lowest estimate, yet this should be compared pretty closely with the average expense in order that the student may not find herself embarrassed for the necessities of college life. It should be noted also that these figures apply to the girl who is living in the dormitory or boarding, and not to the girl who is living at home.

Expenses for college year. Based on average or on mode.

	1907	1908	1909	1912
Tuition.....	\$100.00	\$102.65	\$106.59	\$100.00
Board.....	300.00	286.36	280.37	260.00
Laboratory fees.....	10.00			15.00
Books.....	17.00	16.93	17.41	15.00
Dues.....	1.50	4.48	3.62	3.00
Clothes.....	125.00	91.37	106.98	110.00
Laundry.....	30.00	29.47	11.77	15.00
Medical aid.....	20.00			7.00
Amusements.....	7.00			8.50
Eatables.....	8.00			8.00
Carfares.....	7.50			9.00
Church.....	3.50			2.00
Telephone.....	1.00			
Christmas.....	15.00			12.00
Incidentals.....	30.00	44.39	41.82	10.00
				\$56.50
Totals.....	\$675.50	\$575.65	\$568.56	\$574.50

Expenses for college year. Based on maximum sum returned.

	1907	1908	1909	1912
Tuition.....	\$100.00	\$114.00	\$128.03	\$100.00
Board.....	300.00	300.00	300.00	300.00
Laboratory fees.....	20.00			16.00
Books.....	32.00	50.00	27.66	30.00
Dues.....	9.85	9.25	8.50	5.50
Clothes.....	200.00	225.00	600.00	220.48
Laundry.....	28.00	80.00	30.00	54.00
Medical aid.....	162.00	35.00	56.50	5.00
Amusements.....	27.00			20.00
Eatables.....	25.00			24.00
Carfares.....	28.50			8.00
Church.....				3.00
Telephone.....				
Christmas.....				30.00
Incidentals.....		143.25	266.00	50.00
Totals.....	\$932.35	\$956.50	\$1416.69	\$865.98

Expenses for college year. Based on the minimum sum returned.

	1907	1908	1909	1912
Tuition.....	\$100.00	\$100.00	\$100.00	\$100.00
Board.....	200.00	200.00	200.00	200.00
Laboratory fees.....	5.00			8.00
Books.....	4.00	2.30	5.00	11.72
Dues.....	.25	.60	.50	1.00
Clothes.....	48.90	14.00	5.03	50.00
Laundry.....	6.85	1.04	.25	7.82
Medical aid.....	2.00	.25		.50
Amusements.....	.35			2.00
Eatables.....	1.46			6.00
Carfares.....	2.58			9.00
Church.....				1.36
Telephone.....				
Christmas.....				6.14
Incidentals.....		11.54	15.70	
Totals.....	\$371.39	\$329.73	\$326.48	\$403.54

Expense for college year based on the study.

Tuition.....	\$100.00	Amusements.....	\$5.00
Board	200.00	Eatables.....	3.50
Laboratory fees	10.00	Carfares.....	5.00
Books.....	17.00	Church.....	1.00
Dues.....	1.00	Christmas.....	5.00
Clothes.....	90.00	Incidentals.....	25.00
Laundry.....	25.00		
Medical aid.....	20.00	Total.....	507.50

Most extensive knowledge and keenest judgment are needed for an understanding of production in the home for profit rather than for consumption. Whatever attitude our states may take with regard to this great question, the effect will be of great importance not only to the home in its social aspect but to the home as an economic factor. Whether prohibition or regulation, restriction or encouragement is adopted as the policy generally conceded to be the wisest, the education of woman as a producer will be very largely affected and much of our future policy will be modified accordingly. These are but a few of the problems which experts in household economics are being called upon to answer.

A COURSE IN CHEMISTRY FOR HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE STUDENTS.¹

By J. F. SNELL.

Macdonald College, Ste. Anne de Bellevue, Quebec, Canada.

The following outline of a course in elementary chemistry, specially designed for students of household science, is taken from an address to the science department of the National Education Association. The course has been given to five successive classes in Macdonald College. The students in these classes have been of college age (from seventeen years up) but of very unequal preliminary education. The course has therefore been made simple, and the writer hopes it may be found suitable for high school girls. The aim has been to introduce only such principles as find immediate application in connection with household work, but to present these principles in a correct and truly scientific manner. The expository matter of the course has been in the hands of the last two Macdonald College classes in printed form, and it is hoped that the full course, including directions for the lecture table and laboratory experiments, will soon be regularly published in text-book form.

The definition of *chemical change* is first discussed. Such familiar illustrations as the charring of sugar, the souring of milk, and the fermentation of fruit are used, in addition to those commonly preferred on account of their theoretical simplicity—such actions as the burning of magnesium ribbon and the rusting of iron.

Decomposition is exemplified, not only by such chemically simple changes as the effect of heat on limestone, and the electrolysis of water, but also by the effect of heat on sugar or starch, and the putrefaction of meat or casein—reactions with which the term *decomposition* is commonly associated in the lay mind.

Following the conception of decomposition, the student is introduced to the ideas of *element* and *compound* and to chemical nomenclature reduced to its lowest terms—the signification of the suffixes “ide” and “ate.” Chemical notation is utilized, but the student is not required to master it. Reactions are commonly expressed in

¹ Reprinted from *School Science and Mathematics*, vol. 12, 1912.

words, as well as in symbols. The *atomic theory* is presented dogmatically and its relation to chemical notation pointed out.

Instead of next passing to a study of the elements and their binary compounds—as is commonly done in purely cultural courses—we pass directly to the definitions of *acid*, *base*, and *salt*. Hydrogen and oxygen having been prepared incidentally to the introductory topics of the course, it is not difficult to show by laboratory experiments that the substances called *acids* have not only a sour taste and a characteristic effect on litmus, but also liberate hydrogen when treated with metals. The formation of *salts* in these reactions can be illustrated not only by evaporating the solutions, but also by a lecture experiment in which concentrated hydrochloric acid is treated with sodium, and the purified solid product tasted by the class.

It is also possible to establish by qualitative experiments that the typical *base*, caustic soda, contains the three elements, sodium, hydrogen, and oxygen. The insoluble bases and basic oxides are then introduced, and the effects of acids upon them illustrated and explained. The rusting of iron and the tarnish of other metals are accounted for as due to superficial oxidation, iron oxide scaling off and exposing new surface, while zinc and aluminium oxides are adherent, and serve to protect the metal from further corrosion. The various artificial protective coatings for iron are discussed, and the virtue of prompt polishing of stained household cutlery impressed. The effect of oxalic acid and salt of lemons (acid potassium oxalate) in removing rust stains from fabrics is also explained here.

The conception of *strong* and *weak* acids is next introduced by experiments showing that normal solutions of hydrochloric and sulphuric acids attack zinc more rapidly than do the equivalent solutions of formic and acetic acids. The principle having been illustrated, the student is asked to memorize a classification of the common acids and bases, according to strength.

A laboratory exercise follows, which not only serves as a review of this classification, but also affords practice in nomenclature, and introduces the conception of hydrolysis. A dozen soluble salts are given out with their common and chemical names. The students dissolve the salts and record for each the reaction to litmus, the name of the corresponding acid and base, and the relative strengths of these acids and bases. Reviewing the record they discover that in aqueous solution (1) the salts of strong acids with strong bases, *e.g.*, sodium chloride, are neutral; (2) the salts of strong acids with

weak bases, *e.g.*, aluminium sulphate, are acid; (3) the salts of weak acids with strong bases, *e.g.*, sodium carbonate, are alkaline; and (4) that no salts of weak acids with weak bases have been given them. That the water has acted upon the salts derived from either a weak acid or a weak base can be made clear—at least for the case of a weak acid—by an experiment with soap. Dissolved in alcohol, a good soap is neutral to the indicator, phenol phthalein. The addition of water to the alcoholic solution causes the pink coloration indicative of alkalies to appear. The water has liberated a certain amount of acid and base, and the latter being strong has affected the indicator.

Hydrolysis may be defined as such action of water on a molecule as results in the production of two or more new molecules. In the case of a salt the new molecules formed are an acid and a base. But the general principle of hydrolysis is illustrated in many other reactions of importance in the household, and particularly in the processes of digestion of the three great classes of food constituents, proteins, carbohydrates, and fats. Hence the prominence accorded to a phenomenon commonly ignored in elementary chemistry.

The interaction of two salts, with the production of a precipitate, is illustrated by the action of soap with hard water. The topics of temporary and permanent hardness of water, and the theory of water softening are now in order.

Ammonia comes next, and serves as a connecting link between the alkalies and the alcohols. For ammonium hydroxide is an alkali, and can be classed as a base, if we slightly modify the definition of base originally learned. And familiarity with the ammonium radical prepares the student to accept the radicals of the alcohols.

Incidentally, uses and abuses of "household ammonia" may be referred to—uses of the material and abuses of the name.

The current of thought now flows smoothly into the regions of organic chemistry. Alcohols are the hydroxides of radicals composed of carbon and hydrogen. Like alkalies, alcohols react with acids. The products of such action are water and esters. Fats are esters. Like salts, esters can be hydrolyzed. The hydrolysis of esters is accelerated by the removal of any product of the reaction. The presence of a strong base results in the immediate removal of the acid formed in the hydrolysis of an ester. Hence saponification is simply the hydrolysis of an ester in presence of a base. Therein lies the basis of soap-making.

The dissolving of fats in such liquids as benzine is contrasted with their behavior on shaking with water. The difference is that between solution and emulsification. Both these processes are utilized in the cleaning of fabrics; the former in dry cleaning, the latter in laundry practice, where the marvelous emulsifying powers of soap solutions play a part of immense importance.

Fats, having been considered in the rôle of raw material for soap-making, and in that of dirt on fabrics, have now to be discussed as constituents of foods. Their presence in some foods is obvious. In others, such as oatmeal and nuts, it can be demonstrated by extracting the ground material with a solvent, filtering and evaporating. The use of benzine, rather than ether, as the solvent will be appreciated by girls of weak stomach.

Fat may also be extracted from the leanest meat, if water has first been removed from the tissues by kneading in strong alcohol. The proportions of fat in various foods is now discussed with the class, then the process of digestion and the energy or fuel value.

In studying the digestion of fats, which according to recent views is essentially a hydrolytic process, the student meets with an example of the effect of a ferment in accelerating hydrolysis. The same influence is later shown to be equally important in the digestion of carbohydrates and proteins, and is more readily demonstrated by laboratory experiments upon nutrients of these classes than upon the fats.

Following the fats, the carbohydrates are discussed. By placing solutions of typical sugars and polysaccharides in parchment dialyzers, surrounded by water, and allowing them to stand over to the next meeting of the class, the fact that only the sugars pass through membranes can be demonstrated. This explains the necessity of hydrolytic cleavage of the polysaccharides in digestion. The necessity for the hydrolysis of the disaccharides, cane sugar, malt sugar, and milk sugar, it has been my custom to leave unexplained.

The digestion of starch by saliva is, of course, easily demonstrated in the laboratory, and an invertase can be isolated from yeast and used to illustrate fermentative hydrolysis of cane sugar. Acid hydrolysis can also be readily demonstrated with cane sugar, starch, and filter paper. Incidentally to these experiments the student becomes familiar with the Fehling test for reducing sugars, and the iodine test for starch. The modification of the Fehling solution devised by Dr. Stanley Benedict (now of Cornell Medical College) I have found very convenient for laboratory use, as it is kept in a single bottle, and does not deteriorate.

Alcoholic fermentation and caramelization of sugars are topics of obvious interest to the housekeeper.

The treatment of the proteins, the most complex and therefore the most difficult class of nutrients, must now be faced. Their unique composition and functions must obviously be emphasized, and the wide divergence of properties among them must not be concealed. A few of the leading protein tests are learned by experiment upon isolated proteins, such as egg albumen, blood albumen, and casein, and are then applied to food materials, and also to the discrimination of silk and wool from cotton and linen. The digestion of proteins is illustrated by treatment of fibrin with pepsin in hydrochloric acid solution, and with trypsin in sodium bicarbonate.

To complete the discussion of foods, the composition of those of vegetable origin is contrasted with that of foods of animal origin. The leading exceptions to the general rule that vegetable foods are carbohydrate foods, and animal foods protein and fat foods, are recounted.

In the discussion of foods, fuel value has to be given prominence. Irving Fisher's mode of comparing fuel values and expressing the composition of foods recommends itself by its simplicity. It is of much greater value to know what percentage of the total fuel value of a food comes from protein than to know what per cent of the total weight is composed of protein.

Dietary Standards conclude the subject of foods.

The discussion of *combustion* I have allowed to follow that of foods, though it would be possible and might be advantageous to introduce it much earlier.

The course I have outlined occupies the time at the disposal of my class, which is made up of students taking a one-year course in household science, and having only a single two-hour period a week to devote to chemistry. Teachers having more time, or a better-prepared and better-graded class, can easily expand the course upon the same principle of selecting the theoretical matter appropriate to the household applications of chemistry which they desire to bring to the attention of the class. Whatever work is undertaken, the habits of careful observation and logical deduction should be fostered. Any household science course which does not promote the scientific spirit is evidently misnamed.

THE HOME AND SOCIAL EFFICIENCY.¹

EVA W. WHITE.

Our educational system has been highly developed in this country in spite of the fact that it is open to criticism at several points. We have recognized that national wealth does not lie in natural resources as such, but in the intelligence and skill of the people, and in consequence we have developed a great democratic system of education. This intelligence and skill applied along the lines of action in our communities have made possible our prosperity. We are, however, in the progressive stage of demanding constantly increasing efficiency. It is not enough that many have contributed much. The question is how far has each individual contributed and what have been the results, judged quite as much by the social ideals, the political and industrial lives of our people as by material production? On the one hand, is our scheme of education adaptable enough, differentiated enough, to search out the greatest ability in a child in order to fit that child for his special place in the world? Is our training incisive enough so that our lessons grip in to the extent of being applied without being discounted by 90 per cent? On the other hand, do we pay enough attention to those elusive factors in education which are quite as important as the more tangible forms of instruction and which give the incentive for accomplishment?

Aside from any differences of opinion as to liberal versus technical training, it is coming to be pretty generally agreed that it is not right under our conditions to allow children to go through the elementary grades without some kind of instruction which touches the vocational side of life. All along the line courses of study are tending to become more varied and to be closely allied to the activities of given communities. The school is no longer an impregnable fortress, but is broadening its sphere so that it is coming into vital relationship with the entire round of the interests not only of its children but with the interests of those adults who are pupils in evening schools and other forms of supplementary education.

¹ Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Boston, 1912.

Any student of social questions knows that we are in a period of industrial readjustment, of economic strain. Grave problems are facing us—problems of labor, of government, of immigration with the argument for and against its effect on the American standard—and in the background of all the discussion stands the American home. Questions of public policy react always upon the family unit. Talk in as large terms as we may, there is no getting away from the family and that relationship which exists between father, mother, brother and sister. All our institutions are upheld and are conditioned by the general level of family life. Politicians may talk in terms of public policy; business men, in terms of trade; educators, in terms of educational theory; economists, philanthropists, theologians—each from his own standpoint—but they will all fail to hit the mark unless consciously or unconsciously their arguments are shot through with an interpretation which has come to them as the result of a wide-range contact with family circles. The only reason for all our effort is the good of the individual, the individual in association, of course. Infringe in the slightest degree on the rights of the home, and no amount of outside patching will make amends. The brains, bodies, the characters of our children cannot be developed to the highest point except by giving the widest opportunity to the home. We sometimes lose the issue in our intense absorption in a special line of endeavor. Every thing seems more important than the home. The inventor working to perfect a machine thinks only of the mechanism. He does not make the connection step by step through industry to the individual, then on to that individual in the natural group of which he is one. Those who are primarily interested in the home should, it seems, bring the proper perspective to bear on world issues in the light of the home.

This paper centers about the broadest possible interpretation of the sphere of the homemaking or domestic science specialist. There is no calling more inclusive in its scope than that of homemaking. Those who stand for the home stand for the institution which is the great contributing institution from one generation to the next. The home stands supreme as the pivot around which whirls every circle of activity and is the gauge of any given time. All kinds of schemes for advancement may be put forward but unless the home is functioning efficiently, efficiency is itself impossible, absolutely. There is not a single institution which can make up for the incomplete home. The social worker is baffled again and again in situations unless the

home can be stimulated to use its leverage. All of us have at one time or another had to do for children who have come from chaotic homes, and we have had to face the tragedy that no amount of after training can rub off the ear marks of that early experience. Why is it that so many wayfarers have been in orphanages? Why is the infant mortality rate higher in infants' hospitals than in even the unsanitary home? Hasn't a member of the poorest family you know an advantage over the person, who though less worried by economic strain, has no ties of kin? Read some of O. Henry's stories describing the lonely "single dwellers" in New York to sense the keenest pathos.

A district in a city, a district of extreme congestion, many basement dwellings, hundreds of dark rooms, family after family living in alley tenements where not a ray of sunlight penetrates from one end of the year to the other—the clutter of the district, to say nothing of the filth, is repulsive in the extreme—nevertheless from this district is drafted a considerable proportion of the workers of the city. Business man after business man complains of the inefficiency of the employee. Everything is to blame—the individual, surely; the school system which does not justify its expenditure if it cannot at least develop concentration. Trade school? There is no initiative in those who are trained. "In these days," says an employer, "in spite of our tremendous scientific plans for developing the man who will take responsibility and forge ahead, workmen do not take any interest in their work." We must admit that all of this is true in many instances. There is a lack of pride in doing a task well, a lack of that recurrent, stimulating satisfaction which comes from joy in a task and from the successful accomplishment of the task. Our training does not give back to us results proportionate often to the expenditure, and it never will unless we acknowledge that the dynamic to bring about a better order of things lies in the home. Consider a boy or girl in a city living under conditions similar to those described. From babyhood—what? Not even the sunlight necessary for the hot-house plant. Good red blood is a factor in efficiency. When consciousness of motives is dawning in the child mind only the struggle for mere existence is sensed. Father and mother are deadened to the point of accepting a treadmill succession of days; uncouth manner; lack of demonstrative affection (often a defence to shut out emotion which might make less easy the tenseness of the struggle), stand for the child as the accepted manner of life. The sharp words, the taunts—not really as bitter as they seem, let me say again—yet to the child

they become the example of the way a mother and father address each other. Does success lie entirely in concrete training or does something of outlook on life enter in? Culture? The unconscious effects of beauty of surroundings, of the cultural elements? What chance have thousands upon thousands of our boys and girls to gain that first refining influence of the home? We shall never get that attitude of mind which causes a man to appreciate the significance of his work unless the home ceases to be stunted and unless culture is democratized and through the home subtly trains the child to appreciate values in life. We are wasting time, expending effort to no purpose in our attempts to get efficiency unless we can bring life in its most abundant form within the comprehension of all workers. It is for the homemaker to strike the truth in this matter of efficiency, to point out the irony in expending large sums of money, to say nothing of the human effort involved, in our public institutions of learning when the whole is undercut by allowing men and women to become physically enervated by slum conditions so that efficiency is by that very fact shut out at the start. The possibilities of any system of education are limited by the physical status of the people to be taught and by the mental qualities of intellect and imagination which give the vision that stimulates a man to persist at his work. The mental and physical characteristics cannot, taking people by and large, be disassociated. Now one weak home on the basis of parents and three children, supposing the three children marry and each has three children who pass on the same inability, has an influence so far reaching we do not care to think about it. The fact that we are so expounding efficiency means that we have caught the vision of the tremendous future we have if we can at least eliminate the handicaps of environment. We are inclined to talk in very scientific terms about the effects of environment on posterity. It is a far-reaching theory—the direct effects of environment—but most of us can be quite content to turn our attention to the results to be gained by simply multiplying the number of clean, well-run homes by one, two or three, and by doing what we can in the way of making public service such that homes can develop. When the business man faces us with his inability to command efficiency, let him know that the fault is largely his through the direct misuse of his franchise. Tariff is of more importance than any so-called humanitarian measure which too often is put in the class with good-will offerings and is not considered from the standpoint of business necessity. The Industrial

Workers of the World do not talk in terms of high finance and international relationship or involved theory. Their appeal goes straight out in terms of the welfare of women, children, the home, and because of the vividness of their argument, much as we may censure phases of the movement, they have made us stop and think. We are at fault, are we not, if when we stand for anything as vital as the home, we let a single opportunity go by for as telling an argument as we can put forward? We should court the experience of knowing home conditions, the homes of the unskilled in the mining town, in the manufacturing community, and industrial districts of our cities, as well as the homes of the skilled workers and the rich in the same communities. We are not working for homes in any one city, but for the national ideal of home. We are not concentrating our attention solely on educating the immigrant or the ignorant to an appreciation of right living. We are trying to develop the highest conception of homemaking in every grade in society and I am not sure that we could not for a time leave the poor man out and consider the home standards of the more favored in society. Homemaking has to do not only with the physical management of the home but with those spiritual phases which make home. Now in a country where social capillarity plays as direct a part as in this country, those who are, so to speak, at the point to which others are striving, have a responsibility indeed. Must a family keep a maid in order not to be socially ostracised? Is housework so demeaning? Must young people at the very start live in a certain section where rents are high because everyone rushes to the same district, to escape the sympathy of their friends, or put off marriage until it is possible to live with the same luxury of surroundings to which they are used? How about the qualities of—just manhood and womanhood? Yet, truly, the attitude of mind is such in regard to some of these questions that it takes real character and considerable stiffness of backbone for young people to stand by real home values.

Clearly, it is not enough for the person who is interested in homemaking to know merely the technical processes of the home. The management of the home, on its material side, is only one branch of homemaking. There is the element which has to do with the involved problems of the housewife as a producer and consumer. Then there is the element which has to do with the moral factors of the home. Thirdly, the home cannot be detached from the community but must be interpreted in the light of its relation to its neighborhood, city,

state. What is our attitude toward divorce, diminishing birthrate, eugenics? Have we carefully thought out the interdependence of the home and the community? Do we see clearly the wide influence of the home, the power of the housekeeper? In the field of social reform alone, if the housekeeper would refuse to buy a single article made by child labor, how long would child labor be an issue? Pure food would not be as rare as now if women would take a stand in the matter. As civilization advances, grows more complex, the relations of individuals become more inter-related and they become more and more dependent on the community. Have we the argument gained from woman's contribution to the home to foretell the responsibility the woman's movement is to place upon woman? Aside from any question of suffrage it is daily becoming evident that woman, because of the function of the home in a community, is called to use her talents outside the home in the realm of public affairs. Woman in the home has made her unique contribution by virtue of her special feminine qualities. In the field of world affairs, I am one who believes that woman there will make her contribution along the lines of her special fitness, as in the home, and assume a large responsibility in warding off dangers from the home and in working for constructive issues to upbuild the home. Woman's place in industry is not to be neglected. Statistics show that an increasing number of women are entering industry, but it is also shown that the majority of them sooner or later retire to home life. This situation presents, then, a double problem; woman must be trained to industrial efficiency, and she must also be trained for her ultimate place as homemaker and mother. Industrial occupations must be gauged by their effect on woman's position as the preserver of the race. Hence we homemaking specialists must know industry well.

Now there are two ways of working for the home. First, through our educational system, and second through every public avenue that gives us an approach to the home. We must clear the way so the normal home can develop by standing for decent housing, more equitable wages, shorter hours of labor so that men and women shall have leisure to enjoy home life, as has been pointed out, and we must persistently educate public opinion by means of periodicals, clubs, popular lectures. If we grant that efficiency springs from the home and is conditioned by the home, then home training should be the correlative center for education and this basic teaching should be related closely to the pupil's experience. The result of such teaching would be that

the children who pass through our schools would sense the humanistic value of their training and would get an understanding of social and economic relationships. As a body of persons interested in the broader aspects of domestic science we should endeavor to have the homemaking subjects wind in and out through cultural or industrial courses of any kind. The teaching should be virile and adapted to the specific needs of the persons taught as regards race, occupation, locality. Blanket courses of studying covering all parts of a city leave much to be desired in the way of effectiveness. Courses which teach just cooking or some phase of sewing need to be expanded. That instruction should be adapted to the conditions of local homes is obvious. We want 100 per cent results if we can get them. In an Italian district it is ridiculous to teach nothing but American dishes.

The variety of foods among many immigrants tends to be limited. First teach children how to properly cook their own dishes. Such lessons will probably be used as most children in our industrial neighborhoods help in the housework. I have frequently gone into cooking classes where foodstuffs were used without any regard to local conditions. Teaching the children of men engaged in the heaviest kind of work "dainty dishes" is an absurdity. The coarser foods are the ones on which to concentrate. Cooking teachers should be fired to know their districts, there is such a wealth of wonderful material to be gained. They should use all ingenuity to make connections with the homes from which their pupils come. If teachers of household branches would only live in their districts for a time! The sacrifice is not as great as might be supposed.

Not only should we as members of this conference use every effort to have household branches expanded in our regular day schools, but we should use every means in our power to have incorporated into our school systems every form of supplementary homemaking instruction that community needs make apparent. Have courses of varying lengths to meet the demand of the mother, the factory girl, who because of home ties desires instruction in household subjects, the girl about to be married. The point is to raise the efficiency of as many homes as possible—even one degree is something—and by methods that are as telling as possible. Therefore we should try to meet specific needs. For example, a group of mothers needs to know something of infant feeding. They cannot spare the time to attend a series of 30 lessons, but 6 or 8 lessons could be arranged. Now the 6 or 8 lessons constituting a "unit course" meet a definite

need and accomplish a definite result. Great possibilities lie in the unit course if the groups can be kept small, and the teaching made illustrative and practical.

The home movement is gathering force, but much, very much, will depend on the women who are caught up by it within the next few years. We should try to attract to the work persons of large calibre. The home movement should be interpreted only by those who sense the richness of the calling, who see the possibility that exists in the instruction—yes, of boys as well as girls. Once arouse the inborn appeal of the home and that has been inbedded in character which though it may lie dormant for years will, I have faith, later do much in influencing the child in relations to the home. I know a factory worker, a spinner, who herself has had no advantages and yet who has a perfectly ordered home with a certain air of refinement. One day I said to her: "Mary, how can you keep so neat and attractive a home, working as hard as you do?" She looked at me a second and replied: "When I was a girl I decided to choose an honest man and give my children a chance."

For two generations, covering a period of seventeen years, a certain family have been a problem. The grandmother of the person in question was slovenly in the extreme. The mother was as slovenly and as bad a manager as her mother, and drank as did her husband also. There were four children from the union. The oldest boy, now 22 years of age, is constitutionally weak because of neglect in childhood. The next is a girl of 19 and is the one in whom we are specially interested. The third child suffered for years from a tubercular bone disease and died. The youngest child is delicate and almost constantly under the care of the district nurse. To return to the girl of 19; of all the children she seemed to have the most resistant constitution. She has grown to full womanhood, a fascinating, witty, auburn-haired person. As a small child and well into the teens she seemed the incarnation of all that is mischievous—yet there was a pathetically responsive side to her nature. She with the other children was frequently asked to the settlement house when things were bad at home. From these occasional glimpses of another kind of living she caught some idea of standard. Two years ago she married. Her furniture, although bought on the installment plan, is nearly paid for, and her expression "same as yours" when showing me her household goods means volumes. Direct examples from our home-making classes at Elizabeth Peabody House proving the effective-

ness of homemaking instruction, could be multiplied. I have seen entire family situations change because of the untiring efforts of a settlement worker to rouse the mother or a child to appreciate properly cooked food, cleanliness, order. Morality, one comes to realize, rests frequently on a sanitary, nutritive basis.

From homemaking departments in public schools, philanthropic institutions, wherever homemaking is taught, the appeal should go directly to the young as well as to the more mature, to their heroism, to stand as defenders and upbuilders of the home.

MANAGEMENT OF CHILDREN PREDISPOSED TO NERVOUSNESS.¹

A SUMMARY.

A few months ago, Dr. Barker of Johns Hopkins University read before the Public Health Conference of the physicians of Maryland a paper which will be interesting to all those who are directing the education of children, whether in the home or in the school, for, as Dr. Barker says, "There is a growing desire on the part of well informed people nowadays to make sure that the means of education they provide for their children shall be such that the nervous system will be protected and strengthened rather than exposed to over-strain and injury."

The paper shows the thorough knowledge of pathological conditions which we would be led to expect in so eminent a physician and teacher of physicians, but it manifests also a singularly sympathetic understanding of normal childhood. Here we find the specialist's firm, sure touch and also the humanitarian's broad sweep of interests. The child has been studied with reference to his possible need of cure, but even more than this, with reference to his preparation for bearing the inevitable stress and strain to which he will be subjected in his everyday life. He is to be guided and saved instead of being allowed to be shipwrecked and then rescued.

The section on food, fresh air, exercise, and methods of hardening the body to changes of temperature, in which the foundation is laid

¹ On the Management of Children Predisposed to Nervousness. Lewellys F. Barker, M.D., Professor of Medicine, Johns Hopkins University. *The Bulletin of the Medical and Chirurgical Faculty of Maryland*, March, 1911, Baltimore, subscription, 25 cents a year.

for the more original part of the paper, that on "psychic hardening," puts the stamp of the approval of an eminent authority upon lines of procedure that are followed by the majority of intelligent parents who can control the conditions of their children's lives, and who aim to train and not to pamper them.

"One fact which has become ever clearer as medical knowledge has advanced concerns the nutrition of the child. Faulty feeding in infancy and early childhood may lead to such impoverishment of the tissues and such stunting of growth that the ill effects can never be recovered from in later life. A considerable proportion of the intellectual and moral inferiorities among our people is fairly attributable to imperfect nutrition at this early age. Fortunately the public is now being so thoroughly educated to the importance of breast feeding for infants and of liberal and suitable diet during the early years of life, by family physicians and also through the excellent little manuals of Holt² (2), Starr (3), Griffith (4) and others on the care and feeding of children that it is not necessary to dwell at length upon the subject. Plenty of good simple food including milk, meat, vegetables, and fruit, with avoidance of condiments, coffee, tea, and alcohol is approved by all authorities.

"Many parents make the mistake of allowing the caprice of the child to influence its food. We now know the foods that are suitable for children and, knowing these, the children should be provided with them in suitable amounts and should be required to eat of them, largely independent of choice. The child that learns to eat and digest all wholesome foods and who is not permitted to cultivate little food antipathies makes a good start and avoids one of the worst pitfalls of life with which medical men are very familiar, namely, a meticulous anxiety concerning the effects of various foods, all too likely to develop into a hypochondriacal state."

While the writer deprecates the extreme measures taken by faddists to harden their children, he says that "a still greater mistake is made by those who over-protect their children and who fail to accustom their bodies early to cool baths and to exercise in all sorts of weather." In this, as in all parts of the paper, he seems to have in mind the people with whom the child must live in later life, as well as the child himself, for he discusses hardening as a means, not only of "giving him a tolerance of variations in temperature," but also of preventing him from "grumbling at the weather."

² The reference numbers refer to the list of references given on p. 135.

The "harmonious muscular development which is necessary for the welfare of the mind and of the nervous system" is best secured outdoors, "where children are led unconsciously to exercise their muscles more than is possible indoors." But such development must be secured in part through systematic, physical instruction, "particularly in cities and during the school year." A little book, entitled *My System*, by J. P. Müller (5), is especially recommended.

The hardening of the body is, however, more generally recognized as essential to health than "the steeling of the mind to bear pain and to ignore small discomforts." The second part of the paper, therefore, which deals chiefly with the latter subject has special importance just now. A few extracts are given below:

"Every child should undergo a process of 'psychic hardening' and be taught to bear with equanimity the pain and discomfort to which everyone sooner or later can not help but be exposed.

"Physicians who work among nervous cases realize how often the child who has been too much protected from pain becomes the victim of nervous breakdown later in life. I have seen many a woman who could bear great sorrow or suffer without flinching the pain of childbirth, who still had no tolerance for the little ills of life. In such cases, it is the idea rather than the sensation from which the patient suffers, and such abnormal ideas most frequently arise in those who have not learned in childhood to bear pain well or to adjust themselves without complaint to the disagreeable sensations and experiences, which are essential to a normal bringing-up.

"The boy who learns to tumble in the gymnasium, to stand the pain of boxing and fencing and wrestling, and to keep his temper while engaged in these exercises will have subjected himself to a training which cannot help but stand him in good stead later on in life. One reason why women are more prone in later life to nervousness than men, may lie in the lessened opportunity which girls have for psychic hardening in the games which they play and the life which they lead as children. Particular care should be taken with young girls who show any tendency to nervousness, to see to it that not too much concession is made to their likes and dislikes. Nothing can be more harmful to them than the gratification of caprice. Especially when a child shows a tendency to be nauseated by certain smells and tastes and to complain of noises or of sensitiveness to bright light, the family physician should be consulted and, providing no disease of the sense organs or of the brain is responsible, the process of psychic hardening should at once be begun."

After giving the records of two cases of hypersensitiveness among his patients, one, a woman who was completely upset by the "sound of her husband chewing at the table, or puffing his cigar," and another of a man who, at times, was totally unable to bear strong light, the writer says, "While in severe cases like these just referred to, the patients undoubtedly started in life with abnormal nervous systems, it is quite conceivable that a judicious hardening in early life might have prevented the later shipwreck. I cannot too strongly recommend, therefore, the acquisition of tolerance of disagreeable feeling-tones as early as practicable in life."

* * * *

"Still another manifestation, common in children, and fostered too often by the example of the parents, is vacillation. In one form of functional nervous diseases, indecision is a most prominent symptom. Parents should see to it that children are not exposed to a pernicious example in this regard. While there are some children of the 'hair-trigger' type, who have to be taught deliberation in the making of decisions, there are more who have a tendency to doubt and indecision, and should be taught that it is better after due consideration to make a decision, even though it be wrong, and to stick to it, rather than to remain undecided."

* * * *

"The control of the stronger passions is for some easier than the mastery of ordinary irritation, and nervous children should both by example and precept, be taught how to stifle irritability whenever it arises. So few adults have learned how to meet the daily friction that there would seem little chance as yet for the nervous child constantly exposed to a bad example."

The influence of purposeful adult lives upon the forming ideals of childhood could hardly be better expressed than in the following: In his book, entitled *The Natural Way in Moral Training*, Patterson Du Bois (12) emphasizes the importance of what he calls "nurture by atmosphere," by which he means the indirect education of the feelings, and John Dewey asserts that "The feelings and sentiments are the most sacred and mysterious part of the individual, and should always be approached and 'influenced indirectly.' More can be accomplished by the setting of a good example in enthusiasms, depreciations, reverence, and admirations than by direct preaching."

* * * *

"It is a serious mistake to lead the young child into experiences that belong properly to a later age. When children under ten years of age are made to travel extensively, to visit museums and picture galleries, to attend the theatre and the opera, they are introduced to entertainment wholly unsuited to their time of life and which they, in their immaturity, are entirely unfitted to enjoy. Later on, at an age when they should learn to know such things for the first time, the attractiveness of novelty is wanting; they are cheated of the pleasures which normally should be theirs. As Oppenheim well puts it, a 'child's childishness is its greatest asset.'"

* * * *

"Above all as a factor making for the health of the nervous system, the joy of work must be referred to. It is one of the greatest pleasures life offers; moreover, it compels concentration of attention, and protects from all the dangers which attend upon idleness. 'Education to idleness is education to nervousness.'

"Overwork must be avoided; neither bodily nor mental fatigue should be permitted in excess. Regular, systematic, enjoyable work, suited to the interests and powers of the worker, is the best tonic I know of. If the work can be in the country, rather than in the city, all the better, especially for those with nervous predisposition. The enjoyment of nature possible in the country, the opportunities for work in wood, field, or garden, and upon the river, keeping the worker much in the open air, exercising his muscles, drawing his attention away from himself and fixing it upon things outside—what conditions could be more favorable to the health and happiness of the nervous child? If the nervous children that we see in towns could be transplanted to villages and the country—away from the din and bustle of the city, its restlessness, its haste and its feverish excitements, what a host of advantages would accrue! The schools are growing ever better in the country; in many country districts they are now excellent. The movement which began with the New School of Dr. Cecil Reddie (15) in Abbotsholme, England, and which has led to the Landerziehungsheime [country home-schools] of Lietz (16) in the Harz and in Thuringia and of Trüper (17) near Jena should be followed and imitated in this country.

"In any case nervous children should not be sent to school too early; preferably they should start a year or even several years later than the normal child. And in the schools they should never be pushed ahead too fast; competition is dangerous for the nervous child. The mis-

taken ambition of parents who desire their children to head the class is often responsible for serious injury to health.

"Sleeplessness is always a danger signal. In children it is most often due to indigestion or to mental overstrain; occasionally to premature sexual excitations. If insomnia appear, and especially if it persists, the parent should consult a physician.

"Medicine, psychology and pedagogy are all concerned in solving the problem presented by the nervous child. These sciences have already made great conquests; what the future may hold for them, who will attempt to foretell? Let us avail ourselves of the knowledge we have, doing what we can to dispel the scepticism of the ignorant and at the same time avoiding the futile enthusiasm of those who believe they know all."

To this very valuable paper is added the following list of references:

- (1) *Nervenleiden und Erziehung*. H. Oppenheim. Berlin, 1899.
- (2) *The Care and Feeding of Children*. L. E. Holt. New York, 1910, 4. ed.
- (3) *Hygiene of the Nursery*. L. Starr. Philadelphia, 1894, 4. ed.
- (4) *The Care of the Baby*. J. P. C. Griffith. Philadelphia, 1898, 2. ed.
- (5) *My System: Fifteen Minutes' Work a Day for Health's Sake*. J. P. Müller. New York, 1905. English Translation by G. M. Fox-Davies.
- (6) *Ten Minutes' Exercise for Busy Men*. L. H. Gulick. New York.
- (7) *Exercise in Education and Medicine*. R. T. MacKenzie. Philadelphia, 1910.
- (8) *Physiology of Bodily Exercise*. F. Lagrange. London, 1889. Also, *Les Mouvements méthodiques et la "mécanothérapie"*. Paris, 1899.
- (9) *The Human Machine*. A. Bennet. New York, 1910.
- (10) *Hysteriä und Neurasthenie*. T. Ziehen. Article in *Eulenburg's Real-Encyclopädie*.
- (11) *Fear*. A. Mosso. English translation by E. Lough and F. Kiesow. New York, 1896.
- (12) *The Natural Way in Moral Training*. Four Modes of Nurture. P. Du Bois. New York, 1903.
- (13) *Educational Creeds*. J. Dewey.
- (14) *Technisches und Psychologisches in der Beschäftigung von Nervenkranken*. A. Grohmann. Stuttgart, 1899.
- (15) *Abbotsholme*. Rep. Roy. Com. on Secondary Education. C. Reddie. 1894. Also, his book—*Abbotsholme 1889-1899, or ten years' work in an Educational Laboratory*. London, 1900.
- (16) *Emlahstobba. Bilder aus dem Schulleben der Vergangenheit, Gegenwart oder Zukunft*. H. Lietz. Berlin, 1897. See also W. Frei's *Landerziehungsheime*, Leipzig, 1902.
- (17) *Das Erziehungsheim und Jugendsanatorium auf der Sophienhöhe bei Jena*. J. Trüper. Langensolza. 1910.

SPOILED CHILDREN.¹

A pampered, spoiled child is like a hope that will never materialize. The faintest wish of a pampered child is law. The supremacy of antique dynasties is heavy upon him. If he sleeps, the members of the household suspend the breath and hush the footfall. If he wakes, there is nothing permitted to interfere with his wishes. Does he care to play horse? The father bends his patient back and canters to and fro like a steed of the desert. Does he sneeze? Every window is shut, and adult cumberers of the earth long for repose. At the table, perhaps, he evinces a sudden desire to walk upon the viands. He plants one foot in the salad and with a dimpled hand toys with the mashed potatoes. He is removed from his playground by force, only through fear that excitement will make him ill, not out of respect for the sensibilities of the over-fastidious guest.

Many children are growing up into physical, nervous, and moral wrecks, because they are humored too much. There must not be so much emotional attention given to infants. Almost any baby in three months can be made an autocrat; and many children, before the end of their first year, have true nervous prostration from too much attention.

Children should entertain themselves and be less entertained by others. This will develop their minds and rest their emotions. We must observe them less and talk less about them in their presence. Otherwise we are sure to evoke a series of most vicious emotions which grow into habits that influence them in a wrong direction in after life.

We ought to stop trying to make young ladies and gentlemen out of children. To push them into responsible social life early is to develop emotions and cares, and subject them to tests and temptations that ought to be postponed for years.

The child who can endure disappointment, who can be "crossed" without a tantrum, and who habitually obeys, is building a bulwark against "nerves;" and the one who is not frightened easily, and has self-control and a budding courage, has nipped many serious illnesses in the bud.

¹ Reprinted from *National Food Magazine*, 34, no. 1, p. 19, 1913.

THE NEW CHILD LABOR MOVEMENT.

WILLIAM A. MCKEEVER.

Professor of Philosophy, Kansas State Agricultural College. Author of "Training the Boy," "The Home Training Bulletins," etc.

What is the true purport of the new child labor movement? An inquiry among ordinary parents tends to show that there is grave danger of misinterpretation of the child labor laws. Legislation in defence of childhood is now common in practically all of the states. Thousands of boys and girls once employed in sweat shops and factories are being set free by legal requirements from this kind of heavy toil, and are thus being given the first step toward normal and healthy development.

EVERY CHILD SHOULD WORK.

But this new legislation does not mean that childhood should be relieved of all industrial practices. It simply means that the grasping greed of business shall not rob the child of his inherent right to play, to attend school, to associate happily with others, and otherwise to develop the best inheritances in his nature. It means that the work is to be subordinated to the child, not the child to the work; that the industry required of the child shall not be for the sake of the profits, but rather for the sake of his physical growth, his moral character, and his general discipline.

And so we would remind every interested reader of the necessity of giving the growing child the benefits of disciplinary work and industry. This country is now slowly reorganizing itself into an industrial democracy. The rights of the common man and the common woman were never before held so sacred. There is a country-wide effort to exalt common things and common practices, to give every worthy task and vocation an opportunity to rank up in point of worth and dignity. The child that is allowed to grow to maturity without being required to perform home tasks and duties, without being trained in the beginnings of one or more of the trunk lines of industry—that child is destined more and more to find himself poorly adjusted to the coming social order. Very soon it will reflect discredit, if not disgrace, upon the parent who fails to train his child industrially,

just as is the case today with the one who fails to train his child morally.

A NEW PROBLEM FOR THE SCHOOL.

The public school must meet this new issue and do more to prepare the young for participation in the great industrial democracy now slowly coming into existence in America. The school must teach and explain and exalt common work and ordinary industry. Pupils are now to be taught early in life, for example, how to do plain housework, ordinary home chores, and how to lay hold upon the heavier industrial pursuits, as the status of their years and strength may warrant.

The teachers who have caught the spirit of this new age have hit upon a charming plan for making industrial teaching both popular and effective. They are giving school credit for home tasks in the same manner as they give for school tasks. The ten-year-old boy goes home at the end of the month with a grade card from his teacher showing his rank in arithmetic, reading, language and the like, and the next day he returns with a similar card from his parent showing his grade in tending chickens, horses or cows; in helping with the housework, in carrying wood and kindling, in delivering milk and running other errands, and the like. The girl pupil carries home a similar score-card from her teacher and returns with a like report from her parent. Perhaps she has a grade in dishwashing, caring for the baby, doing the bedroom work, darning her own stockings, mending her own clothes, and the like. The school grades and the home grades are averaged and the pupil's standing is thus made out and recorded.

So the school vitalizes its teachings and awakens a vast amount of interest and effort in the field of common work-a-day achievements. As a consequence there is much comment at home and at school upon the several newly required tasks. There is praise for efficiency in home industry, and there is blame for remissness. The do-nothing boy, no matter how smart in mere book lessons, is shown up to a disadvantage. He is ranked proportionately low in his final grade and is made ashamed of his unworthiness in respect to industry.

SCHOOL AND HOME COÖRDINATION.

As certain as this good world moves, and has its being, there is here suggested a great call to the parents and teachers of America to rally together and coöperate in bringing up a new race of men and women

—new in respect to their attitude toward the world's work, new in their sympathy and fondness for the world's great productive industries, new in their fullness of respect and love for the toiling masses of humanity, and new in their quickened sense of the beautiful good-fellowship that is possible only to those who have been trained to expend some of their energies in the performance of plain, honest, ennobling work.

Teachers and parents must come closer together. They must form home and school leagues or associations, they must assemble at convenient places and talk over their mutual child-welfare problems. It will be found profitable in every sense of the word for teachers and parents to meet once or twice a month at the school house for a full afternoon program during which the children will be turned out to play under the guidance, perhaps, of some able adult leader. Thus, through the medium of heart to heart contact, will all who are interested in the new humanity and the new industrial democracy find ways and means for contributing their part toward its realization.

THE INTRODUCTION OF HOME ECONOMICS IN A SOUTH CAROLINA RURAL SCHOOL.

ANNA L. LEGGETT.

Winthrop College, South Carolina, is carrying on many interesting experiments of various kinds. One feature which especially claims attention is the experimental rural school, conducted on the edge of the campus. This school is presided over by an unusually capable woman, a veritable genius in directing and controlling the many lines of work that are carried on in an ungraded rural school.

The various industrial departments of the college are working out a course of lessons, presenting the respective subjects and correlating them with the grade lessons. The aim is to make them practical for the average rural school teacher in giving the children an all-round education, developing personal efficiency by teaching hand and brain to work in perfect harmony.

The head of the domestic science department is personally conducting the cooking lessons, demonstrating their relation to the other subjects; for instance, figuring out the number of quarts of peas planted in the gardens, the number of quarts after the crop has been gathered, and how many shelled peas there will be from a quart of unshelled

peas. The children also locate the states on the map where certain commodities are produced.

Last year the children in this school prepared one hot dish each day for their noon recess, instead of bringing a cold lunch from home (many of these pupils come four miles in the stage which is provided for them). They had the option of bringing two cents per day or some material suggested by the teacher to be used for their lunch, such as hominy, buttermilk, potatoes, apples, and so forth. The majority preferred to bring the food stuffs, as ready money is not always available in the farmer's home.

This year, however, the systematic study of food principles and of the composition of foods was taken up, and three lessons a week, one hour in length, were allotted to the cooking lessons for the first term. Two lessons per week for the second and third terms will be given.

The children have school gardens where the material may be obtained. Cost is a great item and is very carefully considered in each lesson. Often the cost of the dish prepared is computed and its adaptability and suitability for home use are discussed. A report is requested as to whether the parents will consent to the child preparing the same dish at home at some convenient time. Coöperation with the home is emphasized whenever possible. The first lesson of this term was given on canning pears, which had been sent as a contribution for the cooking lessons. The children studied the composition of fruits, located on the map the sections of the country where fruits abound and then canned the pears. The other methods of preserving foods—pickling, drying, etc., were next taken up. Fruit was dried, jelly made of the skins and cores; cabbage from the gardens and a beet brought from home were pickled.

The cooking lessons furnish subject matter for number work, and new words used in the lesson are taken up in spelling. Copying of recipes is given as a part of the written work, and the making of a cover for the recipe book is made a part of the occupation work in designing.

Good housekeeping is taught with each lesson, but the children's training from last year was so systematic that very little extra time had to be given to emphasize this. The boys take great pleasure in washing the dish towels and pinning them straight on the line. The arranging of the kitchen cupboard is the girls' special care and delight.

A study of potatoes, white and sweet, was made from those grown in the school gardens. A microscope was used to show the starch

grains to the unbounded delight of the children, and the proper cooking of starch was next emphasized.

For Hallowe'en the children popped corn and parched peanuts grown in their gardens.

A Norwegian prune pudding was made in this series of lessons as an appropriate dish for Thanksgiving, and also as a review of the cooking of starch and dried fruit. Another attractive and inexpensive dish made by the children was a nut loaf. Nuts are plentiful in South Carolina and the children contributed some they had gathered in the woods, which lessened materially the cost of the loaf.

The study of corn will be taken up as soon as the children have visited a mill and have seen the grinding process, as the school is taking up the study of Hiawatha and primitive life.

Thus the lessons will proceed, arousing the interest in the bettering of home conditions especially in regard to the economical spending of the family income for food, shelter and clothing; learning to conserve the products of the farm, thus raising the family standard, and dignifying woman's position in the home.

LENGTH OF LABORATORY PERIOD.¹

B. R. ANDREWS.

Secretary of Household Arts, Teachers College.

Some time since I received an inquiry from the principal of a prominent eastern high school to the following effect:

I am studying the proposition of introducing single periods of forty-five or fifty minutes in place of the customary double periods for work in household arts, drawing and shop-work. I am writing to a few schools to see what experience they may have had. I understand that some have tried the plan of single periods, being induced to try it on account of the semi-annual promotions and subject promotions. That is what gives the problem to me. It occurred to me that perhaps you or some of your associates at Teachers College may have some facts already at hand that would be of assistance to me, and I am writing this letter to ask if you will inform me of anything that you may know; and, if you will kindly do so, pass on my inquiry to other departments of Teachers College which may be able to give me the desired information. I shall appreciate a reply at your convenience.

¹ EDITOR'S NOTE.—The question of the length of laboratory periods is one that is of much interest to schools and colleges throughout the country giving courses in home economics. The JOURNAL will be glad to have comments and suggestions from its readers as to the results in other institutions of the single and double period.

This inquiry was referred to a number of instructors in our departments of household arts and industrial arts whose replies are given below as of possible interest in other institutions where the question of the length of laboratory period in household arts is still an open one.

Miss Amy Logan, of the Horace Mann School of Teachers College:

In the Horace Mann School there are double periods for the cooking lessons; in the fourth and fifth high school year there are forty-minute lecture periods in household management which are successful; but for practical work a one-hour period in the high school is all too short because of the necessary loss of time in directions and cleaning. With single-period lessons it seems wisest to devote one entirely to theory and discussion but I find the interval that elapses before application disastrous, especially when in the following period of laboratory work there is no time for review.

Miss Anna M. Cooley, Professor of Household Arts Education:

It has been my experience and observation that it is almost impossible to conduct classes in household arts and drawing with only fifty-minute periods. By the time the lesson is properly presented and the work distributed and incidental help given to individuals it is almost time for the work to be put away at the end of the half hour, and it is hardly worth while to spend but fifteen or twenty minutes in the actual sewing. Of course this arrangement is not true of all classes, for the time allowed for presentation of work would vary from day to day. I believe there is economy of time arrangement of double periods for work and I am conscious always of the great waste when we are compelled to divide our work so as to have only fifty-minute periods.

Miss Helen Kinne, Professor of Household Arts Education:

I want to put myself on record emphatically for the double period in cookery, housewifery, and laundering. We have been forced this year to give the cookery to a high school class in an hour period. It is thoroughly unsatisfactory. It must be evident on the surface that certain of these processes from their very nature consume a definite amount of time that cannot be shortened. Many typical and really fundamental processes have to be omitted if a shorter period is used. Both instructor and pupils suffer from a sense of pressure and haste. It is almost impossible to do the work intelligently. An hour and a quarter is the very shortest time that is practicable. My feeling is so strong in regard to the matter that I am inclined to recommend dropping the work in these subjects if the necessary amount of time cannot be allotted. In home nursing, and in the theoretic work in sanitation and dietaries, the short period is possible.

Mr. William Noyes, Professor of Wood-Working:

I think it would be a great mistake to shorten the periods. Better to *lengthen* them. Every change that we have made *lengthening* the period has been of great advantage.

NUTRITION AND DIETETICS FROM THE STANDPOINT OF PHYSIOLOGICAL CHEMISTRY.¹

JUDAH LEON JONA.

NOTE: Questions of dietetics are commonly discussed in their chemical relations and less commonly in their physical aspects. Notwithstanding the great progress which has been made in physical chemistry in recent years, the applications of methods and results to nutrition have not been very numerous. Perhaps one of the best known examples of physical chemistry applied to food matters is the use of a method for determining the purity of milk which depends upon the variations in the freezing point of pure and watered milk. An interesting paper has recently been published by Judah Leon Jona, assistant lecturer in physiology in the University of Melbourne, Australia, which has to do with osmotic pressure in the living body. In addition to reporting the osmotic pressure in a considerable variety of food materials and an extended study of the comparative cryoscopy of the blood of land mammals, crustacea, etc., the author discusses osmotic pressure in relation to nutrition, a starting point being the theory that life had its origin in the sea and that the body fluid of animals still retains physical characteristics of the solution in which life began.

Extensive quotations from Professor Jona's paper follow.

The primitive form of life from which all present existent form, of animal life are derived was, according to the Darwinian theory, a unicellular organism, analogous to the *Amoeba*, which, undoubtedly, lived in the ocean. From this form were evolved the simple coelenterates, and ultimately animals appeared which contained in their organization a closed cavity which contained a fluid undoubtedly derived from the environment, the ocean. This closed cavity and its contained fluid were ultimately destined to become the circulatory system and the circulating fluid (blood) of the higher animals.

When these primitive animals left the sea and took to an estuarine life as a preliminary to living in the mud and, ultimately, on dry land, they took with them, contained in this body cavity, a fluid which had the same chemical composition as the ocean, their original home.

In the future evolution of this type of terrestrial animal, it is legitimate to postulate that the composition of this fluid remained about the same, and thus the animal, its cells attuned to a fluid com-

¹ From the paper, "Osmotic Equilibration in the Living Body," by Judah Leon Jona. Proc. Roy. Soc. Victoria, n. ser., 24, 1911, no. 2, pp. 230-232, 232-235, 239.

position, and by its terrestrial life removed from any chance of being exposed to any alterations in the composition or concentration of this circulating fluid, was given every opportunity of ascending in the scale of evolution.

We have here the first example of standardization in the body, one of the principal stepping-stones to the proper and efficient evolution of the individual and race, a process well exemplified in the high degree of standardization met with in the higher animals, not only of the osmotic pressure of the blood, but also the chemical composition, salt ratios, surface tension, and viscosity of the blood, as well as standardization of body temperature, rate of heart beat, and rate of respiration; the higher the animal the greater is the degree of standardization of its various functions. . . .

With what mechanisms, then, is the animal organism endowed which enable it to oppose environmental influences affecting the osmotic pressure of its blood?

We know that one of the chief functions of the kidneys is to maintain the osmotic pressure of the blood constant, and, since in the mammal (for we know more of mammals and are better able to study them) there is a constant drain of water from the blood to supply the sweat and saliva, both very watery fluids (all other secretions being more or less isotonic with blood), the kidney is normally called upon to secrete a fluid whose osmotic pressure is generally very much above that of the blood. In this connection the results of Sommerfeld and Roder² are of interest. The osmotic pressure of the urine of a suckling fed on different milk diets was determined, and it was found that on a diet of full cow's milk the urine had . . . an osmotic pressure, or Δ as it is designated, of $0.736^{\circ}\text{C}.$, and on its mother's milk the urine of the suckling gave a Δ of $0.746^{\circ}\text{C}.$ But there is another means at the disposal of the organism, and that is by allowing entry into the alimentary canal of foods whose osmotic pressure is not above that of the blood, or in the case of sea animals (teleosts upwards), where this is not possible, either the non-absorption of the extra saline constituents of the sea water, or if the absorption of these substances does take place, their elimination by the kidney. Bottazzi³ has shown in the case of the marine teleosts that the latter process takes place, but whether marine mammals have adopted this practice, or whether they simply do not absorb the excess of salt (and thus of necessity do work against osmotic pressure), has not been

² Sommerfeld and Roder, *Berl. Klin. Woch.*, 519, 21, p. 544, 1902.

³ Bottazzi, *Ergebnisse d. Physiol.*, 1908, S. 246, et. seq.

determined. . . . But in regard to land mammals in general and man in particular, my own observations on the osmotic pressure of liquid foods throw some light on the subject.

It is generally admitted that one of the functions of the stomach is the establishment of osmotic equilibrium between the fluid food swallowed and the blood.⁴ This it does by adding salts, etc., to hypotonic fluids, and by diluting the hypertonic. In the latter function the action of the stomach is aided by the salivary glands, which pour out a copious secretion of saliva. In one experiment cited in the appendix, 72 cc. of saliva were poured out in fifteen minutes during the process of chewing about 12 grams of barley sugar.

This function is no doubt protective, for the deleterious effects of exposing tissue cells to the action of hypertonic or hypotonic fluids are well known. The swelling up of, and interference with sensation in, and the function of the skin after prolonged immersion in water, and on the other hand the 'roughness' produced when a piece of confectionery is retained for a few minutes between the teeth and cheek, are common examples.

Of the foodstuffs ordinarily admitted to the stomach, the great majority are in solid or gelatinous or colloidal form, and to such substances the considerations of osmotic pressure cannot apply. The actual fluid foods admitted to the stomach of man are milk, the ordinary beverages, fruit juices and beef teas, meat extracts and soups, while in the case of the lower animals in the natural state, the list is very much shortened, since the ingestion of prepared foods is solely confined to man and the domestic animals. In tea, coffee, and cocoa there is usually a sugar addition which varies with the personal taste, but the Δ given by the contents of a cup of tea, as prepared for an ordinary individual, was found to be about 0.46°C . The Δ of milk has been determined by many observers, and is the same as the blood, 0.57 to 0.59 . Of all the fluid foods admitted to the stomach of man, alcoholic beverages and fruit juices alone are hypertonic. In fact most of the fluid foods admitted to the stomach are hypotonic, thus containing a water excess which the organism readily avails itself of for purposes of 'flushing out' the system, and which also allows of the addition of hydrochloric acid in the stomach. Moreover, it may be safely stated that in no case is a fluid admitted in which the hypertonicity is due to the mineral ingredients alone, except under protest. The sense of taste stands at the entrance to our alimentary canal, and tests the food not only qualitatively but

⁴ Bickel, *Handbuch d. Biochem.* (edited by Oppenheimer), Vol. III, part 1. S. 86.

also quantitatively from the standpoint of molecular concentration. To this function of the sense of taste we may give the name osmotactic, and it is undoubtedly to the possession by the sense of taste of this osmotactic character that the stomach mucosa is shielded from exposure to foods whose osmotic pressure is far above that of the environment to which the cells are normally accustomed. When, for any reason, a highly hypertonic fluid is admitted to the stomach, then vomiting (or sometimes diarrhea) is the result. This is well seen after the ingestion of strong salt solutions, large quantities of sweetmeats, or strong peptone solutions, or over-indulgence in alcoholic or strongly saccharine beverages. In the process of mastication and swallowing, the salivary glands are stimulated to the pouring out of a copious secretion, and the organism has developed here, too, another mechanism to aid in the dilution of the stomach contents—namely, the sense of thirst, the proper satisfaction of which, by the ingestion of a sufficient quantity of water, tends to the dilution and consequent lowering of the osmotic pressure of stomach contents. If these protective mechanisms fail in carrying out their object, then the organism responds by rejecting the contents of the stomach altogether by reflex mechanism of vomiting.

Thus in man, at any rate, and undoubtedly in the case of the other mammals, the maintenance of a constant osmotic pressure of the blood by means of the kidneys and excretory organs is in a remarkable manner and to a considerable degree aided by the possession by these higher animals of the senses of taste and thirst. (Of man and mammals we can speak with certainty, although it is legitimate from common experience to postulate that all vertebrates at least possess these senses too). The power to vomit is possessed by most animals. Amongst ruminants and solipeds it is a rare occurrence, but, after all, the nature of the food of these animals would undoubtedly exempt them from the necessity of ever rejecting the contents of the stomach. But with man and the carnivores particularly, the nature of their food, particularly the liability to putrefaction and ptomaine formation, renders the existence of the power to vomit a necessity, altogether excluding considerations of the osmotic pressure of stomach contents, which pertain chiefly to man, who, by an abuse of his intelligence, perpetrates dietetic errors from which the lower animals are protected by their instinct, and senses of taste and smell.

In connection with those hypertonic fluid foods which are normally admitted to the stomach of man, the following observations of mine

are of interest. A definite volume of beer was taken which gave a Δ of 2.246, evaporated to dryness and then calcined. The ash was then taken up in the same volume of distilled water, and dissolved almost completely, leaving a small residue of calcium carbonate, which probably existed in the beer as the soluble calcium salt of some organic acid. This watery extract gave a Δ of $0.026^{\circ}\text{C}.$; and similarly with the juice of the orange—

Δ of juice	0.990
Δ of aqueous extract of ash	0.132

These experiments are analogous to what occurs in the body. The saccharine and alcoholic constituents of the food are rapidly absorbed and burnt off, or stored in the body as inert substances (cf. glycogen), while the saline constituents are left to play their part in the osmotic pressure phenomena in the body. Thus we see that the kidney is constantly called upon (in marine forms always and generally in land mammals as well) to excrete inorganic salts, which tend to produce a rise in the osmotic pressure of the blood, and thus the urine is generally hypertonic. *Prima facie*, this means work done, and hence in metabolism experiments this work done should be included in the energy balance sheet, for in some cases the amount of energy thus expended may attain considerable dimensions when converted into terms of heat value or mechanical work.

We thus see that in the evolution of the race there has been a steady growth of the tendency of the individual to become independent of its environment (and therefore not compelled to change in response to alterations in that environment) by means of maintaining through the coördinated and integrative action of all its organs, constancy in the action of its vital parts.

The removal of its vital organs from the disturbances of function which must of necessity follow alterations in the physical and chemical properties of their environment, which in the higher animals are dependent on those of the circulating fluid, was the first great advance, and ensured for the organism the better and more efficient action of these organs, and afforded a distinct impetus to higher specialisation and greater independence of external environmental change. Thus, the beginning of the development of the firm resistant bony skeleton in place of the soft cartilaginous framework, and the formation of a high type of tissue from a simple one which this advance implies, most probably began to take place at a time in the history of the

race when the cartilaginous fish was leaving the sea and taking to the mud of estuaries, where it most probably also developed the mechanism for maintaining the salt ratios and osmotic pressure of its blood a constant.

Of course in considering this problem due consideration must be given to the method of 'give and take' which is exemplified in all evolutionary processes. Thus could be explained any unaccountable differences in vascular development or higher development in parts of the nervous system in some of the lower animals, and as analogies may be taken the loss of the alimentary canal in intestinal worms and the degeneration of the organs of smell in man when he assumed the erect posture.

*Osmotic pressure of liquid foods.*⁵

	NO. OF DE- TERMINATIONS.	AVERAGE OSMOTIC PRESSURE (Δ).
<i>Beverages.</i>		
Coffee (sweetened) (2 tbsp. sugar in ordinary breakfast cup).....	2	0.342
Tea infusion (2 tsp., about 12 cc., tea leaves in 200 cc. boiling water, infused 5 minutes).....	3	0.050
Tea (with milk and sugar) (100 cc. infusion, 50 cc. water, 25 cc. milk, 10 gm. sugar).....	3	0.457
Tea, second infusion (200 cc. more water added to leaves from first infusion, allowed to stand 35 minutes).....	2	0.025
Lemon juice and water (33 cc., juice of 1 lemon in 250 cc. distilled water).....	3	0.124
Lemon juice and water (100 cc. diluted juice and 1 tsp., 5 gm., cane sugar).....	2	0.486
Lime juice and soda water (commercial product)....	2	1.266
Beer (draught beer) A.....	2	2.408
Beer (draught beer) B.....	2	2.248
Beer ash extract (30 cc. of B dried and calcined, 30 cc. distilled water).....	2	0.026
Wine (75 cc. kept between 77° and 80°C. for 35 minutes and boiled 7 minutes to get rid of alcohol....	3	3.240
<i>Foodstuffs.</i>		
Treacle (and water) (1 part to 7 parts water).....	1	1.730
Peptonized milk (a commercial brand) (3 parts milk, 1 part water, peptonized 20 minutes, with 1 oz. cane sugar to 1 pt. milk).....	2	0.654

⁵ Average values calculated from the fuller data reported by J. L. Jona, loc. cit., pp. 242-248.

*Osmotic pressure of liquid foods.*⁵—Continued.

	NO. OF DE- TERMINATIONS.	AVERAGE OSMOTIC PRESSURE (Δ).
<i>Foodstuffs.—Continued.</i>		
Peptonized milk (a commercial brand) (2 parts milk, 1 part water, peptonized 20 minutes, sweetened)	3	0.628
Peptonized milk (a commercial brand) (4 parts milk, 1 part water, peptonized 20 minutes)	2	0.547
Vegetable soup (carrot 100 gm., parsnip 110 gm., turnip 55 gm., spring onion 47 gm., celery 25 gm., parsley 12 gm., water, 1,500 cc., cooked 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ hours, strained, unsalted)	3	0.373
Vegetable soup (above soup with 4 per cent salt)	1	2.757
Vegetable soup (above soup with 2 per cent salt) . . .	1	1.536
Vegetable soup (above soup with 0.8 per cent salt) . . .	2	0.853
Vegetable soup (above soup with 0.75 per cent salt) . .	1	0.780
Vegetable soup (above soup with 0.33 per cent salt) . .	3	0.584
(All salted soups tasted too salt except last)		
Beef tea (6 cc. meat extract in 1,000 cc. water, unsalted)	3	0.140
Beef tea (above with 2.5 per cent salt)	3	1.626
Beef tea (above with 1.25 per cent salt)	3	0.885
Beef tea (above with 0.625 per cent salt)	3	0.544
Beef tea (above with 0.416 per cent salt)	2	0.417
(Sample with 0.625 per cent salt had satisfactory taste)		
Beef tea (6 cc. meat extract in 1,000 cc. boiling water)	1	0.160
Beef tea (salted to suit taste of "A")	2	0.330
Beef tea (salted to suit taste of "B")	2	0.329
Beef tea (oversalted)	1	1.922
<i>Sugar Solutions.</i>		
Dextrose solution (salivated) (100 cc. of 10 per cent dextrose solution taken in mouth in sips of 25 cc. each, kept in mouth $\frac{1}{2}$ minute, with $\frac{1}{2}$ minute intervals between sips)	1	1.156
Dextrose solution (10 per cent, salivated)	2	1.067
Dextrose solution (5 per cent)	1	0.566
Dextrose solution (5 per cent, salivated)	3	0.534
Cane sugar solution (salivated) (20 gm. in 150 cc., 13.3 per cent, 100 cc. treated like dextrose solution above, 7 cc. saliva added to 100 cc. sugar solution. There was an after secretion for several minutes, 13.3 per cent)	1	0.868
Cane sugar solution (salivated)	2	0.790

⁵ Average values calculated from the fuller data reported by J. L. Jona, loc. cit., pp. 242-248.

*Osmotic pressure of liquid food.*⁵—Continued.

	NO. OF DE- TERMINATIONS.	AVERAGE OSMOTIC PRESSURE (Δ).
<i>Fruit Juices.</i>		
Lemon (140 gm. yielding 40 cc. strained juice)	3	0.939
Orange (135 gm. yielding 50 cc. strained juice)	3	1.100
Orange (225 gm. yielding 110 cc. strained juice)	2	0.991
Orange juice ash extract (30 cc. juice dried and calcined, 30 cc. water. Small undissolved residue was chiefly calcium carbonate)	2	0.133
Pineapple juice (fresh Queensland fruit)	3	1.462
Coconut "milk" (nut yielded about 150 cc.)	3	0.519
Peaches (300 gm. fruit, 5 stoneless, yielding 180 cc. strained juice)	4	1.089
Apricots (formed pulp only, no juice obtainable)		
Plums (formed pulp only, no juice obtainable)		
Cherry plums (500 gm. fruit yielding 250 cc. strained juice)	3	1.032
Tomato (350 gm. fruit yielding 80 cc. juice)	3	0.527
Apples (300 gm. fruit yielding 30 cc. juice)	3	1.194
Gooseberries (300 gm. fruit yielding much pulp, 10 cc. juice)	3	1.352
Cherries (250 gm. fruit yielding 105 cc. juice)	3	2.244
Grapes (250 gm. fruit yielding 160 cc. juice)	2	3.251

⁵ Average values calculated from the fuller data reported by J. L. Jona, loc. cit., pp. 242-248.

H. SOPHIE NEWCOMB MEMORIAL COLLEGE

(SEE FRONTISPIECE)

The dining room of the Domestic Science Department of the H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College, Tulane University, New Orleans, La., is interesting to the students and friends of the college because it is an example of the coöperation of its art school. It is a north room with old-fashioned white woodwork and walls of soft deep yellow above the platerail, with gray-green below which tones in well with the black-green of the highly finished oak furniture. This furniture was designed by an Art School senior and is thoroughly good.

The electric dome, the keynote of the room, with its purple grapes and green leaves on a soft yellow background was not only designed but made in the pottery department, where the china was painted to harmonize with it. The fine Newcomb embroidery on Russian linen for table service and day service also shows the grapevine, while on the plate-rail many fine pieces of Newcomb pottery show their beautiful blues and greens and coppery tones against the plain paper. The large water color painting of the college grounds, which hangs above the mantel, is the work of a graduate student.

The views of the old live oaks, the gray walls of the main building, and the drifting clouds seen through the linen scrim of the unshaded windows add greatly to the charm of a room which serves well its purpose for the pleasant gatherings held in it. It is dignified and satisfying, a pleasure to the Art School as well as to the domestic science department.

SCHOOL LUNCHES AT BASEL, SWITZERLAND.¹

GEORGE NESTLER TRIOCHE.

In Switzerland, as in nearly all European countries, school lunches, when organized by the state (canton) or by the cities, are free. At Basel, the state and the city are all one, that is to say, the canton or state is formed by the city proper and a few suburban places, such as Riehen. This canton is called Basel Stadt (Basel City); the surrounding country forms another canton (Basel Country). The following information refers only to the former. The estimates of the canton for 1912 state the expenditures for school lunch work to be as follows:

(1) For distribution of milk and bread (to the Pestalozzi Society), Frs. 2700. This society is taking care of poor scholars. It buys bread and milk with the funds contributed by the state.

(2) For distribution of milk and bread (to the Community of Riehen²), Frs. 300. At Riehen, the "Schoolhouse" distributes milk and bread by means of the contribution which the state places at its disposal.

(3) Breakfast to poor scholars of special classes, Frs. 2000. This contribution will be increased.

(4) To the Soup Commission, Frs. 7050.80. A private commission by the name of "Commission of School Soup Distribution" arranges for the preparation of the soups. The soup is cooked early in the morning and at 9 o'clock sent over to the schoolhouses. Every day, 8-12, scholars of each class receive at 9 and 10 o'clock one plate of soup. The expenses are covered by the following receipts: State contribution, Frs. 7050; Collection made between all scholars, Frs. 12,000; Sundry donations by merchants, etc., Frs. 5000; about Frs. 24,000. Distribution of soup from the beginning of December to the end of March. Composition of soup: Rice, peas, oatmeal, lentils with a little boiled meat in it.

(5) For the expenses of summer vacations for poor children, Frs.

¹ These particulars have been compiled from information forwarded to the writer by the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Canton of Basel-Stadt. (Erziehungs-Department, Basel-Stadt, A. No. 7021, den 19 Dezember 1912.)

² This is a suburban village, which is in fact a part of Basel-City.

7000. A private committee collects the money needed to send several hundred children to the country for a summer vacation; to this the state contributes Frs. 7000. The children are divided into groups, each of which is under the supervision of a teacher.

(6) Home for children at Langenbruck, Frs. 2000. Consumptive school children are taken care of by a private committee which sends them to a sanatorium at Langenbruck.

COLLEGE COURSES IN GARDENING.

A LETTER FROM ENGLAND FROM A COLLEGE GIRL TO HER ALMA MATER.

"Wouldn't it be fine to have a course in gardening given at the college? It is such a glorious profession for girls, and so much more profitable and interesting than ordinary athletic games. When I see how even the cottagers here use and beautify every inch of their land, it makes me ashamed to remember that I was nowhere in school or college, taught to develop the ground on which I stood. Most city people do the best they can with their lawns in front—but why are they content with lawns when they could have flowers, and why aren't their back yards full of small fruit bushes and vegetables and pretty borders of flowers instead of step ladders and wash-tubs and ash piles and rubbish and weeds, weeds, weeds! What a vision of loveliness could be made of the tract of land the college has received if I could be turned loose in it with a couple of dozen enthusiastic girls, and as many spades and forks and rakes and barrows and trowels, etc., etc., etc. Why, with an hour a day for a college year they would transform that waste land into a paradise which would supply the college with all its flowers and half its vegetables.

"With a lady gardener in charge that tract could be used for this purpose until the new library or whatever it is can be built. At present the college seems to turn out 99 per cent teachers of whom a large per cent chuck the whole thing and marry in a few years, and spend the rest of their lives wishing they had learned something along with general culture which would help them to be good wives and mothers and homemakers. Do start with gardening as requiring the least equipment and from it build up more fully the domestic science department to supplement the pedagogic department. Let the domestic science class live in the Bush house and run it like a house, and work it themselves in relays, along with their other class-room work."

REFRIGERATORS.

HERMANN T. VULTÉ.

Assistant Professor of Household Chemistry, Teachers College.

The object of refrigeration, of course, is preservation. That will depend on at least three conditions—low temperature, ventilation and dryness.

Low temperature can readily be secured by the melting of ice, either naturally, or by the influence of some chemical salt. Ventilation is accomplished by ordinary means. The dryness depends upon the rapid change of the air in the ice-box, and in a certain sense is connected with the question of ventilation, although attempts have been made on a small scale to absorb moisture by chemical substances, such as chloride of calcium. They are not efficient or satisfactory on a small scale.

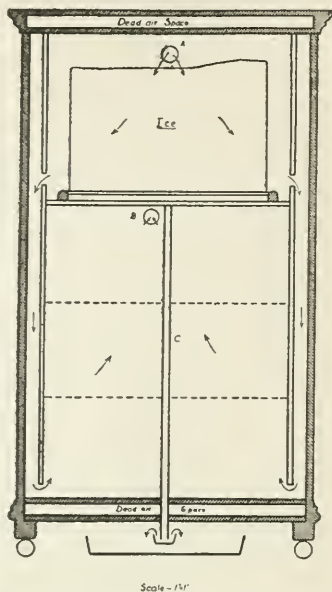
In accompanying diagram notice double wall construction on the sides, showing the air inlet space at *A*; circulating spaces indicated by the small arrows; direction of the air currents, and the exhaust hole at *B*; also the dead air space at the top and bottom of the box; drain pipe, *C*, carrying the water from the ice to the pan underneath the box.

The entire construction of this box is in wood, interior walls being made of spruce or pine; the outer walls of the same material, or of some more expensive wood, like oak, if desirable. The interior surfaces of the interior walls are covered with sheets of rolled zinc, also the bottom of the box. The bottom of the ice compartment is a sheet of galvanized iron; tub *C* of sheet zinc. All of the interior spaces through which the air circulates are heavily covered with a good quality of waterproof varnish.

The theory of the working of this box is that air enters through the aperture *A*, and coming at once into contact with the ice, is chilled. Necessarily it is heavy when cold, easily passes out through the small openings in the side and down through the double wall; is delivered into the bottom of the box, and then, passing up through the dotted lines, which indicate perforated metal shelves (of zinc or of galvanized iron), the air current being warmed by absorbing heat from articles

on the shelves, gradually rises and passes out of the box at *B*. It is necessary to have small draft regulators at the points *A* and *B*, for obvious reasons.

The advantages of a box constructed in this way would be, first, the low cost of construction, placing it within the means of almost everyone; secondly, ease of keeping in order—metal surfaces need hardly any attention except washing at weekly intervals, with weak soda-and-water solution. Drain pipe, *C*, which may become contaminated with refuse matter from the melting ice, but can easily be cleaned by using a wire—or better, a wire with brush end. There are no open joints in the interior of this box. All the edges of the metal surfaces can be securely soldered at a very reasonable cost.



The disadvantages of a porcelain lined refrigerator may be summed up as follows: high cost; impossibility of fastening the porcelain slabs or plates securely to the wooden framework. These pieces of porcelain are necessarily small, thereby making a large number of joints. These joints can only be formed with substances like cement, or plaster of paris, neither of which is a satisfactorily adhesive substance between porcelain and wood. In case any one or more of the porcelain slabs should become detached, it is very difficult, almost impossible, to replace it making a tight surface. Of course the shelving can never be made of porcelain. Recourse must be had to the wooden shelf, or shelf made of sheet metal, both of which are used in the other type of box.

Glass lined refrigerators have been proposed, compartments of which are made in one piece, without joints. These would seem to be ideal, except from the danger of breakage through carelessness, and the exceedingly high cost of the material which is practically prohibitive.

In all refrigerators that are used by butchers and grocerymen in general, you will find that the preference is given to the wooden con-

struction, largely on account of its cheapness, also to some extent, on the score of its durability and ease of keeping clean.

There would be no reason why the wooden surface could not even be coated with paint, as long as the food material was not coming in direct contact with it. Of course the varnish coating, although more expensive, is more satisfactory, although I rather incline to the cleanliness and bright appearance of the light painted surface, for instance, white or some shade slightly off the white, allowing one at a glance to form an opinion in regard to the cleanliness of the surface.

Any objection that might be urged against wood from the effect of dampness will not have much weight if the atmosphere in the box is kept reasonably dry. With that objection it seems to me that every drawback has disappeared.

Much of the objection to the old-fashioned wooden boxes has arisen either because they were improperly constructed—that is, did not provide for sufficient and rapid ventilation—or because for a long time the lined or filled box was used—that is, that in which the wall spaces were filled in with charcoal or some other absorbent material of the same nature. For a very short period of time these charcoal lined refrigerators absorb deleterious odors and gases given off by the foods, but unfortunately they retain them and become the resting place of numerous colonies of bacteria, which would give rise to active dangers, only restrained by the comparatively low temperature within the box, no provision ever being made to withdraw the charcoal and replenish it with new material.

As will be seen from the drawing, all of that objection has been done away with; fresh air is constantly circulating through the double walls. These are the best possible conditions that we can provide for apparatus of this type.

One objection will always be offered to a box of this construction, the fact of its using considerably more ice than the unventilated box. It will be necessary to convince householders that desirable low temperature under sanitary conditions can only be obtained by the expenditure of ice; and you cannot insist on that point too strongly.

WHAT OUR FOREFATHERS COOKED AND ATE IN 1810.¹

What did the American people eat in the year 1810? What kind of food was cooked in the big open fireplaces under the swinging cranes, or baked in the old-fashioned brick ovens? Were the housewives of the early days of the last century able to obtain the culinary results of the present age, and was the food either wholesome or palatable? There fell into the writer's hands recently a little leather-covered book, which in a manner answers these questions. At least its 180 pages contain a great deal of information, not only regarding the food materials which were available in 1805, but how they were prepared.

It is reasonable to believe that foodstuffs were pure in those days, and we know that many kinds of food were very cheap, compared with the soaring prices of 1910. If materials were both cheap and good, one need not be surprised that the cookery was prepared in such lavish quantities, or that a bag of flour that would last an average family a week in this age was used up in one baking of pies, with other ingredients in proportion.

Perhaps the receipts in this little volume in the main do not differ greatly from formulas that may be found in similar books of today, though it is interesting to note that some materials considered indispensable in modern cookery are conspicuous by their absence. Flavoring extracts are not mentioned, nor are soda and cream of tartar referred to anywhere, while baking powders were unknown. It may be noted, also, that housewives in 1810 were able to worry along without the thousand and one ready-prepared substances and food ingredients that are obtainable today from grocers everywhere. Some of the food prepared after these receipts was doubtless rich—too rich, and too highly seasoned—but the frills and the fancy dishes do not appear, everything being for the most part on the order substantial. The cooking school was a thing of the future, and the imported French chef had not arrived.

¹ Reprinted from *Nat. Grange Off. Organ*, 5, No. 25, p. 14, 1910.

In lieu of flavoring extracts they used quantities of rose-water, orange flower water, almonds, corlander seed, and the juice and rind of fresh oranges and lemons, and they introduced wines and brandies into all forms of cookery without stint. Constant use was made of the kitchen garden herbs, and they ran the gamut of the spices. These were absolutely pure, however, for the cook usually ground and sifted them as they were required. Even perfumes were sometimes employed, as in "whipt cream"—musk at that. This receipt and those which follow are copied verbatim:

"Whipt cream. Take a quart of cream and the whites of eight eggs, beaten with half a pint of wine; mix it together and sweeten it to your taste with double-refined sugar; you may perfume it (if you please) with musk or ambergum tied in a rag and steeped a little in the cream. Whip it with a whisk and a bit of lemon peel tied to the middle of the whisk, take off the froth with a spoon and put into glasses."

There was no greedy beef trust, nor were there cold storage houses in 1810, and meats cost from 3 to 5 cents per pound—poultry, 6 cents. Over one-third of the book is taken up with quaint directions for preparing all kinds of meats, fish and fowls, and with the making of soups. There are elaborate rules for roasting and stuffing, for broiling, boiling and stewing, and for making hashes and fricassees. Sweet herbs were introduced into nearly everything cooked in the meat line, and even fish; wines were used in preparing meats and high seasoning and spicing were the rule. Here is one of the receipts for "Alamode Beef:"

"Take a round of beef and stuff it with half pound pork, half pound butter, the soft of half loaf of wheat bread, boil four eggs very hard, chop them up; add sage, parsley, summer savory, sweet marjoram and one ounce cloves pounded, chop them all together with two eggs very fine, and add a gill of wine, season very high with salt and pepper. Cut holes in your beef to put your stuffing in, then stick whole cloves in the beef, then put in into a two pail pot with sticks at the bottom; if you wish to have the beef round when done put it into cloth and bind it tight with 20 or 30 yards of twine, put it into your pot with three quarts of water and one gill of wine. A large round will take three or four hours to boil."

Among the quaint receipts is one given "to dress a beefstake sufficient for two gentlemen, with a fire made of two newspapers. Let the beef be cut out into slices, and laid on a pewter platter. Pour on water sufficient to cover them, salt and pepper well, cover with another platter inverted; then place your dish upon a stool bottom upwards,

the legs of such length as to raise the platter three inches from the board; cut your newspapers into small strips, light with a candle and apply them gradually, so as to keep a live fire under the whole dish till the whole are expended, when the stake will be done; butter may then be applied so as to render it grateful."

Eggs were 10 or 12 cents per dozen, and they were used in combination with all foods. As individual dishes, however, there is but one receipt for cooking eggs, as follows:

"To broil eggs.—First put your salamander into the fire, then cut a slice round a quartern loaf; toast it brown and butter it, lay it in the dish and set it before the fire; poach seven eggs just enough to set the whites, take them out carefully and lay them on your toast; brown them with the salamander, grate some nutmeg over them and squeeze Seville orange over the whole. Garnish with orange cut in slices."

The salamander was a utensil formed with a plate of metal which after heating in the coals was held over the cooked dishes to brown the them, for, as before stated, a large part of the cooking of a hundred years ago was done in an open fireplace, while the ovens were the old-time brick affairs like many of the baker's ovens of today—the wood fire being built in the oven and the coals and ashes raked out when the prepared foods were ready for baking.

"To fricassee a hare.—Boil the hare with apples, onions and parsley; when it is tender shred small, then put thereto a pint of red wine, one nutmeg, a little pepper and salt and two or three anchovies; stir these together with the yolks of twelve hard-boiled eggs, shred small; when it is served up put as much melted butter as will make it moist; garnish with some of the bones and the whites of the eggs boiled hard and cut in halves."

In lieu of chemicals for raising all kinds of breads, cake, etc., receipts for such foods call for "emptins" (emptyings)—the home-made yeast of our grandmothers' time, which was kept in a stone crock, always ready for use. The only chemical mentioned in the book is pearl-ash, referred to in three formulas for gingerbread. Very little is said concerning bread and biscuit making, as everybody was supposed to know all about such simple matters, but there are several pages devoted to rusk. Here is the receipt for

"Rusk No. 5.—One pint of milk, one pint of emptins, to be laid over night in sponge; in morning melt three-quarters of a pound of butter, one pound sugar, in another pint of milk; add lukewarm and beat till it rises well."

"P. C. Rusk, No. 4," called for four pounds of flour and fifteen eggs. In another "six to eight pounds of flour are used with a pound each of butter and sugar and a dozen eggs."

"Rusk No. 6—Three-quarters of a pound of butter, one of sugar, twelve eggs, a quart of milk, as much flour as they will wet, a spoon of cinnamon and one gill of emptins. Let it stand till very puffy and light; roll into small cakes and let stand on oiled tins while the oven is heating. Bake fifteen minutes in a quick oven; while hot wash the top with sugar and whites (of eggs)."

Invalids must have had good stomachs in those days to be able to eat the following "diet bread;" "One pound sugar, nine eggs beat for an hour, fourteen ounces of flour, spoonful of rosewater, one of cinnamon or coriander; bake quick."

Breakfast food formulas—like the snakes of Ireland—are a minus quantity, for the cereal fad of this age is not foreshadowed even by a single mention of the word oatmeal. They probably substituted pie, for the breakfast pie habit still survives in parts of New England today—and possibly elsewhere. The pastry of the times must have been toothsome, and a great variety of meat, fruit and even vegetable pies and tarts was made, the crusts oftentimes being more elaborate than the filling. There are a dozen or more receipts for making these "pastes." No. 9, royal paste, "excellent for tarts," was as follows:

"Rub half a pound of butter into one pound of flour, four whites (of eggs) beaten to a foam, two ounces of fine sugar; roll often, rubbing one-third and rolling two-thirds of the butter is best."

From the quantities of ingredients required to make No. 2, the receipt must have been for the Thanksgiving and Christmas batch of pies. "Rub six pounds of butter into fourteen pounds of flour, whites of eight eggs; add cold water and make a stiff paste." No. 8, "good for a chicken pie," was made with one and one-half pounds of suet to six of flour, and a spoonful of salt wet with cream; add two and a half pounds of butter to be rolled in, six or eight rollings in.

A lemon tart required over two weeks to make. The receipt begins: "Take six large lemons, rub them well in salt, put them in salt and water and let them rest two days, change them daily in fresh water fourteen days." After being duly salted, and properly freshened, they were boiled two or three hours. Six pared, cored and quartered pippins were boiled in another gallipot until tender; to the lemon liquor was then added one half of the apple, with one pound sugar, and boiled fifteen minutes. After preparing the royal paste described

above, laid in shallow pans, a spoonful each of the combination and the remaining half of the apple was dropped in the pans brushed with melted butter; and after sifting on superfine sugar, baked in a gentle oven.

An "Apple tart" was composed of stewed apples, Madeira wine, sugar, rose water, orange juice and cinnamon, baked in a plain waste. Doctor Wiley would doubtless consider the above a "blend" and misbranded.

The long list of puddings embraces bread, flour, rice, Indian, fruit puddings in variety, potato, carrot, squash, "pompkin," currant, orange and lemon, with several "plumb" pudding receipts. One of the last named is as follows:

"Take half a loaf of bread, on which pour three pints boiling milk; when cold add six ounces of ground rice; mix the bread and rice together with half a pound of plums, one pound of currants, four ounces of beef suet cut fine, eight eggs, half gill of rose water, one gill wine; lemon peel, sugar and nutmeg as may be agreeable."

MRS. RICHARDS AS A CORRESPONDENT.

We print the following letter, a copy of which has just been furnished us, as giving some idea of the breadth of Mrs. Richards' interests. Many, many such letters could be brought as evidence of her human sympathy and helpfulness.—ED.

January 21, 1904.

My dear Mrs.——,

I have not been as unmindful of your kindness as my silence seemed to show. Our classes in my subject have been very large and the fact of not getting back until just as term opened has hampered me so that only this week when the term is over and the laboratory closed am I in a condition to clear up my desk and table. My office has been a den, and at home my own table is piled high. So many interests also beg for just a few minutes' time. The Public School Conference, the Household Aid Co., have taken many hours. The plan of sending out hot dinners, the bother of a retainer of the heat, and the opening of a new lunch room, the cafeteria, where one helps one's self, and the thousand and one other fads that this city is always going into, drag one into things in spite of all resolutions to the contrary.

We have kept very well. We walk around the Pond [Jamaica Pond] 35 minutes every morning, and then have breakfast and go to our work. Professor's book is really out and we are so glad. He is now going over his notes for the class. His latest amusement is taking photographs before sunrise. The little time-book he goes by did not have data for this and so he is getting it.

The Institute is busy and quiet, no great excitement about anything. "Shall we move?" still haunts us. I think of you when I get my luncheon, as I did today, at our little vegetarian restaurant here by the Back Bay Post Office, a very good little place, but I am sure to wish them open on Friday night.

I am busy over the new editions of my textbook and the Cost of Living and with my research assistant who is writing the Economics of Consumption.

I ran away to St. Louis the last of the year to the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and to see about several other things. I came back by way of Chicago and the School of Education which is most interesting. I was caught in the cold snap and got into Boston at 3:15 a.m., with the thermometer several degrees below zero, at our house 16°. We were 6 hours late. I went across the street to the hotel, and as my family did not expect me until the morning no one worried.

I was interested to see that in St. Louis where the average working man is thrifty French or German, the shop windows were not filled with the tempting display of marked down prices and bargains and trashy goods which our eastern cities have gone into. The store front has to be all plate glass and color and sparkle to *tempt* the passerby, implying that she is *temptable*. It is this element of temptation which comes in so strongly in our economics. But I must not go on preaching.

I have been so glad of all that you have sent me. I hope I have not neglected a question of yours. I am clearing up and your letter is for the moment mislaid but as I have had this envelope addressed for six weeks I am going to fill it now and send it on its way. Your children would have been amused if they had seen Professor and me this morning wading in 2 to 3-foot snow drifts for our morning walk. Now it is rainy but we have had much snow.

Give our love to the children. I wish I could have seen them at work.

Sincerely yours,

ELLEN H. RICHARDS.

ADMINISTRATION SECTION.¹

A report on help employed in Mount Royal College, Calgary, Alberta, Canada, was secured by Miss M. Garrick, housekeeper at Mount Royal College, in which she compared their number of employees with those in other colleges. The summary is as follows:

	RESIDENTS.	EMPLOYEES.	EMPLOYEES TO RESIDENTS.
Mount Royal College, Calgary.....	97	15	1 to 6.3
Alberta College (1st hall).....	107	11	1 to 9.7
Alberta College (2nd hall).....	116	10	1 to 11.0
Brandon College, Manitoba.....	138	17	1 to 8.0
McDonald Hall, Guelph, Ont.....	110	15	1 to 7.0
Whitby Ladies College, Whitby, Ont..	140	20	1 to 7.0

¹ Notes from the discussion at the Administration Section, Lake Placid, June 1912.

In discussing facilities for keeping food hot a suggestion was made that trucks loaded with dishes might be run into hot closets built in the same manner as the laundry drying closets, and when the dishes are to be used the trucks could be taken into the kitchen or into the dining room. It was noted that the central kitchen plant with the delivery of hot food in trucks to the various buildings is common among certain hospitals; for example, the Institute for the Feeble-Minded at Faribault, Minnesota and the State Hospital at Kankakee, Illinois; also that the system of trucks for carrying hot food and dishes during the serving of meals is used at Holloway College, England. In one institution three-compartment vegetable dishes made of aluminum are found to facilitate service as well as to retain heat.

The cleaning of silver in an institution is an important economic problem. The plan of placing silver in an aluminum pan containing a solution of common salt and soda was compared with the polishing of silver by hand; both the time element and the question of the comparative wear and tear of the chemical action against that of the friction of polishing were considered.

EDITORIALS.

Under this title the first publication for the Ellen H. Richards Memorial Fund is now published and for sale. It will be remembered that one of the activities of the Lake Placid Conference of Home Economics was the consideration of the nomenclature of the subject, and the American Home Economics Association, which grew out of the Lake Placid Conference, continued its work in this as well as in other directions.

At the Second Annual Meeting of the Association in 1910 a Committee on Nomenclature was appointed; it began its work at once and has reported to the Association at intervals. It was the conclusion of the Committee that the name "Home Economics" is the most satisfactory name so far proposed for the subject as a whole, although other terms may better fit the course offered in some particular institution. The definition later adopted by the Association is the following: "Home Economics as a distinct subject of instruction is the study of the economic, sanitary and esthetic aspects of food, clothing and shelter as connected with their selection, preparation, and use by the family in the home or by other groups of people."

In accordance with what seemed the best as well as the most general usage, the Committee proposed that the subject of Home Economics be divided into four main divisions, namely, (1) Food, (2) Clothing, (3) Shelter, and (4) Household and Institution Management, a proposal which received the approval of the Association.

At the Fourth Annual Meeting of the Association, the Committee on Nomenclature was continued under the name "Committee on Home Economics Syllabus." in order that it might prepare a Syllabus of the general subject based on the definition and principal subdivisions mentioned above, which should bring together and group in logical order the topics to be included in an ideal course of instruction. The plan of arranging the material finally adopted subdivides each of the first three of the main divisions—Food, Clothing, and Shelter—into (1) Selection, (2) Preparation, and (3) Use; and the fourth main division—Household and Institution Management—into (1) Material Basis, (2) Social Contacts, Activities, and Functions, and (3) Aims and

Results. These headings are further divided and subdivided with reference to economic, scientific, sanitary, esthetic, and other aspects under a variety of headings.

It is believed that persons familiar with the subject will find more advantages than disadvantages in the attempts at uniformity which have been made, and it is hoped that the teacher and student will overlook the occasional use of an unfamiliar word or of an old term given a meaning somewhat different from that usually attached to it since in many cases no term sufficiently broad or exact seemed to be in general use.

In preparing the Syllabus much emphasis has been laid upon the theoretical, historical, and general aspects of the different topics and upon the relations of chemistry, physics, mathematics, biology, economics, esthetics, and engineering to the different subdivisions. This seems desirable since these topics often receive much less attention than they merit even in courses of instruction designed to have a cultural value.

Use will undoubtedly show that there are numerous omissions, however, it is expected that additions and changes will be made in subsequent editions. As it stands, the Syllabus represents not an outline for a course of instruction but rather a classified list of topics from which cultural, technical, or vocational courses can be made up by the teacher whether the grade of instruction be primary, secondary or advanced.

As brought together in this form an attempt that has never before been made, the subject is seen to be far-reaching in its scope, it leads the student along the paths of literature, art, and general culture and provides as well instruction along specific lines. The conclusion seems just that rightly combined with languages, literature and other long-established subjects, Home Economics can and does provide a well-rounded course of instruction of full cultural value and does not sacrifice anything essential to a broad education. Those who have given the subject most attention believe that in addition it has a special value in preparing directly for life and its problems.

Mrs. Richards was particularly interested in the question of nomenclature and classification of the subject of Home Economics and the Syllabus, and as now presented to teachers, students and others, for use and for criticism, appropriately appears as the first publication of the Fund which bears her name.

In preparing the Syllabus, a number of teachers of Home Economics and related subjects have been consulted and valuable sugges-

tions have been received. The literature of the subject has also been carefully examined.

The Richards Memorial Fund Committee reports that encouraging words keep coming in from every section of the country, and contributions from schools, colleges, and clubs continue to be received. Many could not have their Richards Memorial Fund Day celebrations in December and so the stories of recent celebrations of the day are still reported. This is as it should be. Let us all work away that the Memorial Fund may be a generous one and worthy of her whose name it bears! Home Economics Day will be celebrated December 3, 1913. Let every school and club take notice and begin to plan accordingly. A few Richards Calendars, we understand, can still be secured.

We wish to call especial attention to two articles in this number, that of Dr. Barker "Management of Children Predisposed to Nervousness," and that of Prof. Wm. A. McKeever "The New Child Labor Movement," because they sound like a needed warning as yet hardly heard. In this day of sparing the child every pain and sorrow, of insisting first and foremost on a happy, untrammelled youth, we are facing a real danger, that needful training and discipline will not be started in time to affect character, to enable the individual to "endure hardness" in the words of St. Paul, and to meet the requirements of the world for self-control and that habit of application which is necessary to success in any field of action.

The admirable laws that have been passed in many states to prevent the exploiting of children in industry have laid a new responsibility on home and school. The hours upon which untimely and exhausting labor must not encroach, offer an opportunity which should receive the most thoughtful attention of parents and educators.

The chairman of the Housekeepers' Section of our Association, Mrs. Lynden Evans, has chosen her coöperating committees, and they are consulting as to the best method of starting their department in the JOURNAL. Their plans will be presented at the June meeting of the American Home Economics Association and will be discussed and voted upon. The officers of the Association realize that if they start this department, they will have entered upon a very impor-

tant phase of the work requiring careful deliberation, and no further decision can at present be announced.

The papers presented at the Administration Section of the American Home Economics Association in June, 1912, and which have appeared in various issues of the JOURNAL, have been bound together as reprints and are now on sale at fifty cents (50 cents) per copy. The following is a list of these papers:

Administration Section. Marketing facilities and their relation to the cost of living, Edward Ewing Pratt; The laundry problem in New York City, Helen Woodford Pratt; School lunches and medical inspection, Ira S. Wile; Practice fields in household and institutional management, Emma H. Gunther; A rational method in the practice field for students in dietary administration, Florence R. Corbett; The diet kitchen, Mabel C. Little; The housekeeper dietitian in the hospital field, Mary A. Lindsley; The coöperation of dietitian and physician, E. Grace McCullough; The relation of household administration to public utilities, Martha Bensley Bruère; Scientific management in the household, Frank B. Gilbreth; Report of the committee on uniform accounting for institutions; Waste accounting systems and basic dietary ration tables, Charles S. Pitcher; General development and present status of the school feeding movement, Louise Stevens Bryant; The rural school warm lunch, Mary L. Bull; Report of the New York school lunch committee; Elementary school lunches under school department direction, Buffalo, N. Y., Mary E. L. Small; Some data regarding food supply and sale in a Men's Club, C. F. Langworthy; Commercial laundries in New York City, Wm. C. Rogers; Institution laundries; Penny lunches in Rochester, N. Y., Alice M. Hotchkin; Educational need and value of lunches in elementary schools; Wanted, a test for "Man Power," Ellen H. Richards.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CURRENT LITERATURE.

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BOOKS AND LITERATURE.

Any books or periodicals mentioned in this department may be obtained through the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS at the publisher's price.

A Laboratory Manual of Dietetics. By Mary Swartz Rose, Ph.D. Assistant Professor, Department of Nutrition, Teacher's College, Columbia University. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1912. Cloth, 12 mo., pp. viii, 127. \$1.10 net.

In the preparation of this laboratory manual of dietetics the author has undertaken a unique piece of work, and has carried it out in a way that promises very satisfactory results. The work should meet with a hearty welcome from teachers of dietetics who have, in the unsettled state of the science, been forced to grope their way more or less in the laboratory. This book, being the direct result of Dr. Rose's experience in teaching dietetics, has much practical value, either as a manual to be placed in the hands of students, or as a reference book containing many helpful ideas for the teacher who prefers to present her own scheme of laboratory instruction to her classes.

In the preface the author states the three-fold purpose of the book: First, to explain the problems involved in the calculation of food values and food requirements; second, to explain the construction of dietaries; third, to furnish reference tables which will minimize the labor involved in such work without limiting dietary study to a few food materials.

This three-fold purpose is well carried out in the three parts into which the book is divided.

Part I, pages 1 to 16, "Food Values and Food Requirements," is a brief discussion of (a) The composition of food materials, by elements and by food principles; (b) The function of food, food being considered as a source of energy, as a building material, as a regulator of body processes; (c) The food requirement, which is considered first from the standpoint of the total energy requirement at different periods of life, and second from the standpoint of providing a balanced diet. This discussion of the food requirement is emphasized by various tables of scientific standards such as, Symond's tables of height and weight of men and of women at different ages; Von Noorden's allowance per kilogram; Atwater and Benedict's hourly factors; Atwater's estimate according to degree of muscular activity; Tigerstedt's estimate according to occupation; Average energy requirement of children per kilogram of body weight; Average weights and heights of children at different ages; Von Noorden's reductions in energy requirements in old age.

Part II, pages 17 to 70, "Problems in Dietary Calculation," presents in concise form the solutions of twelve typical dietetics problems, as follows:

I, Studies in weight, measure and cost of some common food materials; II, Relation between percentage composition and weight; III, Calculation of the

fuel value of any given weight of food materials; IV, Calculation of the weight of a Standard or 100-calorie portion; V, Food value of a combination of food materials; VI, Distribution of foodstuffs in a standard portion of a single food material; VII, Calculation of a standard portion of a combination of food materials; VIII, Analysis of a recipe; IX, Modification of cow's milk to a required formula; X, Calculation of the percentage composition of a food mixture; XI, The calculation of a complete dietary; XII, Scoring of the dietary.

In Problem I, the student, considering a given food, is taught to differentiate between the fuel values of the *gram*, the *ounce*, the *pound*; to compare the *bulk* of a 100-calorie portion with its *weight* in grams and ounces; to determine the fuel value of the *market units*, i.e., *quart*, *package*, etc. In connection with the above *total* fuel values of the various units of the food under consideration, the *fractional fuel values* due to each food principle are emphasized. Table XIII, containing the above data in part, regarding 158 foods, and containing blank spaces to be filled in with the results of the student's own deductions, presents an exceedingly valuable piece of work. Table XIX, containing data for 332 foods similar to that in Table XII, should be mentioned in this connection. Problems II, III, IV and VI have to do with a *single* food material, and in all these cases the application is made to milk as a type; while Problems V, VII, VIII, are concerned with *combinations* of food materials, the application being made to a one-egg cake. Problem IX explains the method of preparing modified milk, while problem X is an extension of problem V. In Problem XI the student is taught the intricacies of working out a complete dietary according to a proposed standard. Finally an interesting dietary score-card is proposed in Problem XII.

In Part III, pages 71 to 115, seven valuable "Reference Tables" are presented as follows: XV, Refuse in food materials; XVI, Conversion tables—grams to ounces; XVII, Conversion tables—ounces to grams; XVIII, Conversion tables—pounds to grams; XIX, Food values in terms of standard units of weight; XX, Ash constituents in percentages of the edible portion; XXI, Ash constituents in standard 100-calorie portions.

Tables XX and XXI are reprints from Dr. Sherman's "Chemistry of Food and Nutrition."

The appendix, pages 116 to 120, containing a plan of a dietetics laboratory together with classified lists of equipment, is a valuable part of this book.

Undoubtedly, not all teachers would present the laboratory work and problems of dietetics from the point of view of the author, but the methods indicated are very suggestive and the tables in connection with Problem I seem to the writer particularly valuable. The general division of the points in the Dietary Score-Card could well serve with advanced students as a basis of discussion from which each might evolve an original score-card.

Finally, although any teacher is bound to work out her own methods of instruction in class room or laboratory, yet Dr. Rose has rendered a distinct service to the teaching of dietetics in presenting her own very suggestive plan of laboratory instruction. Also she has provided the teacher of dietetics with an exceedingly valuable reference book in small compass. The usefulness of the book would be further increased by the addition of a complete bibliography.

Manual of Personal Hygiene. Edited by W. S. Pyle. W. B. Saunders Company. Philadelphia. \$1.00. Fifth edition, revised and enlarged 1912.

The demand for a fifth edition within twelve years of first publication is sufficient recommendation for this book of hygiene. Most important of the differences between this latest and the fourth edition is the addition of a chapter on "Food Adulteration and Deterioration," by Dr. Harvey W. Wiley. Although this discussion of pure food is very important and excellent, it and a large part of the previously added chapter on "Domestic Hygiene" reach quite beyond the commonly accepted limits of personal hygiene. It is true that the authors of these two chapters that have been added to the original book have worded them so as to make more or less of a personal appeal; but so might almost all sanitation and bacteriology be presented. The field of hygiene is too vast for any satisfactory presentation of general hygiene from the personal point of view; and it seems to the writer of this review that a manual of personal hygiene is most useful if it is limited to the rules for healthful living which each individual may apply to himself, leaving to books on public hygiene or sanitation such problems as those of pure food and quarantine, which require collective, communistic, and especially legal control. This is not a condemnation of the excellent book under consideration, but simply a regret that it has been expanded beyond its original and logical scope by inadequately extending into the enormous field of public hygiene.

The Principles of Organic Chemistry. By James F. Norris, Ph.D., Professor of Chemistry in Simmons College. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1912. Pp. xv, 579. \$2.50.

This text bears evidence to the wide experience of the writer in teaching the elements of organic chemistry to beginners in the subject. He has been unusually successful in bringing the fundamental principles of the science into sharp relief without sacrificing unduly the detailed consideration of compounds of practical importance. Although the subject is developed on broad, general lines, the author seems to have borne in mind, more than is customary in texts on pure organic chemistry, the needs of students whose major interest in the subject lies in its application to physiology and nutrition. The comparatively full treatment of fats, carbohydrates, and proteins makes the book well adapted for use in courses on organic chemistry for students of household economics.

The Hygiene of Exercise. By Anna Leonard Muzzey, Instructor, Sargent School of Physical Education. Published by the Health-Education League, 8 Beacon Street, Boston. 5 cents per copy.

This is number 26 in the series of the Health Education League booklets. As in the previous publications of this League much valuable information and advice are given in this small pamphlet of 18 pages, and the facts are presented in a way to be remembered. No attempt is made to go into a detailed discussion of exercise, but the reasons for the need of such exercise, its influence upon and benefits to both mind and body are briefly and clearly stated. A part of the book is devoted to practical suggestions for the average man and woman in regard to hygienic exercise, and those activities possible to the average person, such as walking, are emphasized.

Household Science and Arts. By Josephine Morris, Supervisor of Household Science and Arts in the Boston Public Schools. American Book Company, New York, 1912, pp. 224. \$0.60.

This book which is written by a teacher of experience primarily for teachers, contains in addition to general directions for conducting cooking classes, about 330 well-formulated recipes presented in good literary form. It does what every elementary text book of the kind should do—places more emphasis upon carefully supervised practice than upon precept and theory, as a means of leading pupils to habits of cleanliness, to good taste in serving food, and to good table manners. As the author says in the preface: “While children may understand a full statement of what they ought to do and of what they ought to avoid, *good kitchen habits can be secured only by the teacher's persistent demand for the ideal.*” The book, besides promising to be helpful to teachers, is one which pupils, even those of small means may well be encouraged to buy and to take home, for it contains in concise and convenient form directions for preparing most of the dishes that constitute a diet of rational simplicity and variety.

Basic Principles of Domestic Science. By Lilla Frich. Muncie Normal Institute, Muncie, Indiana. \$1.50.

A series of seventy-two consecutive lessons in cookery and related theory, divided into four semesters. It is suggestive in the variety of dishes mentioned in the practical part of each lesson as an application of basic principles. At times the relation of theory to practice is rather remote, and fails to fulfill the promise in the “Foreword” that “each lesson includes a page presenting the theory and a page outlining the practice, illustrating the principle involved.” On the other hand, many essential points in theory cannot be paralleled by closely related practical work, and the author has succeeded in keeping a fair balance, a logical sequence and a systematic grading in manipulation. The individual recipes given at the close of the data for each semester are helpful, and the illustrations suggestive. The scientific data is not selected from the most recent government work and dietaries, but the material used is reproduced correctly. The book is equipped with a thorough index and several blank pages at the end of the work for each semester. It shows careful selection of material from many sources adapted to the demands of the class and the subject, but it leaves entirely to the reader the opportunity to incorporate in the lessons the outside interests which must form a part of every well-rounded domestic science lesson.

Lessons in Elementary Cooking. Mary C. Jones, Teacher of Cooking in the Public Schools of Brookline, Mass. Boston Cooking-School Magazine Company. Boston, 1912, pp. VI, 266. \$1.00. By mail \$1.08.

A text-book admirably suited for its purpose so far as literary style and manner of presentation of the subject are concerned. It is attractively illustrated, its recipes are skillfully selected, and it artfully introduces valuable lessons other than those directly involved in the subject of cookery. It treats, for example, of the avoidance of danger from fire, the obligation of picnic parties to leave grounds in good condition, and the duty of economizing food materials. There are some inadequate or misleading statements which have evidently been overlooked in proof-

reading and revision. On page 16, for example, fat is described as a fuel food, starch as a source of energy, and the proteids as tissue builders only.

Common Sense Care of Babies. By Mary Busby Austin. Indianapolis. \$0.50.

This small book is indeed full of practical suggestions to the mother. The importance of cleanliness, of fresh air and good simple food for the mother is given proper prominence and the use of drugs discouraged.

The care of the child is explained with excellent sense and thoroughness. But the adherence to the two-hour period between feedings for the first six weeks and the regular use of cream and top milk for normal children show that the author belongs to the older school of pediatrics.

The Child's Day. By Woods Hutchinson. Houghton Mifflin Company, New York. \$0.40.

Here is a book addressed to the young boy and girl under twelve, it would seem, to judge from the style and the illustrations. It would be interesting to know whether such books which seem to the older mind so clear as to statement and so attractive in style are really read and enjoyed by those for whom they are intended. The function of the skin, the processes of digestion, the care of the teeth, the importance of exercise and fresh air and sufficient sleep are all treated and amply illustrated.

The book closes with an excellent supplement made up of questions and answers on the contents of the book.

The Family in Its Sociological Aspects. By James Quayle Dealey, Ph.D. Professor of Social and Political Science in Brown University. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1912. Pp. 137. \$0.75.

This little book makes no claim to being an exhaustive study of any aspect of the family. It is rather a confession of the faith of one sociologist in "the essential integrity of the American family" and of his belief that "there is a trend toward a highly ethical monogamous marriage." The confession is prefaced by an historical sketch of the family and of the institution of marriage, which is brief but is given in enough detail to show where the foundations of the writer's optimism lie and is followed by a well selected list of reference books. That there are "social conditions and forces which are so retarding the progress of the modern family that it would be comparatively easy to depict the situation so black that only pessimistic conclusions could be drawn" is not denied. "Sexual vices and diseases seem to be sapping the physique of the race and destroying mutual confidence and love in the domestic circle. 'Race suicide' and an alarming increase in the divorce rate seem to be closely allied factors in weakening the sanctity of home ties. The demand for the labor of women and children in poorly paid industries is ominous for racial vigor, and the crowded condition of modern urban environment weakens the ties of kinship and makes impossible the close domestic circle of homely fellowship."

Yet the author sees a way out of the difficulty and that, fortunately, by a path which leads, not backward, but forward. He does not say, even by implication, that "woman's place is the home" nor that higher education is disqualifying women for family duties. On the other hand he looks with favor upon the growing independence of women for he believes it to be "important that women, unhampered

by economic considerations, be allowed the determining voice in deciding who shall be the fathers of their children, in order to insure a free choice among those who are most vigorous physically, morally, and mentally."

"From the sociological standpoint the mere teaching or preaching of great principles makes little impression on most people unless they are living under conditions favorable to these principles." That conditions are growing more favorable to the attainment of a high ideal of family life is the conclusion reached. "Education is losing its artificial character and is once more seeking to ally itself with the home. . . . It looks forward to the maturer life of its students and seeks to prepare them for civic and economic usefulness and domestic responsibilities. It trains them in personal hygiene, in sex morals, in the recognition of duty to state and society, and aims so to refine their personalities as to eliminate unconsciously the bestial elements derived from a lower civilization." The conspiracy of silence among church, school and home, with reference to prostitution and kindred evils, is being broken up. Righteous warfare is being waged against low wages which force undue postponement of marriage, against rapacious landlordism, against the exploitation of children in industry, and against those industries which "in their eagerness to produce results lose sight of the human element and fail to safeguard the life, health and morals of their employees." "In fact, throughout the entire social body associations innumerable are rising up, each agitated about some particular aspect of the social problem, but all unitedly filled with the belief that society must not rest satisfied with present conditions."

Students of home economics should read this book, which can hardly fail to show them that behind the bewildering array of modern movements, reforms, and associations which are making so great a demand upon the sympathies of conscientious people, as to threaten them with what Dr. Crothers has called "moral bankruptcy," there are constructive forces at work which bid fair to create nobler families and to build better homes.

Woman at Work. By M. Mostyn Bird. Chapman and Hall, London. 1911. 257 pages. \$1.25.

An introductory discussion as to the position of women workers outside the home is good, and there follows a presentation in attractive style of the present opportunities open to English young women in manufacture, distribution, service, the arts, and philanthropy. The book will hold the attention of any young woman interested in the problems of choosing a vocation, and is the sort of reading to put in such a person's hands. Supplementing Perkins' "Vocations for the Trained Woman" it would help any American girl to find herself. The contrasts offered by English conditions (see the section on the bar-maid, there are 27,000 of them in England) being particularly stimulating to one vis-a-vis with the choice of vocation.

The United Irishwomen, Their Place, Work and Ideals. By Horace Plunkett, Ellice Pilkington and George Russell, with a preface by the Reverend T. A. Finlay. Maunsell and Company, Dublin, 96 Middle Abbey Street, 1911. Pp. 50. 6d. (12 cents).

This booklet of fifty pages will bring an inspiration to every home economics worker who has any conception at all of the national problem which the home

economics movement is facing. It ought to give our rural workers especially, courage to know that the women of Ireland are organizing for the improvement of country life. Coöperative societies, supplementary households, industries as poultry and bee keeping, market gardens, weaving, lace making, village improvement societies, progress in home economics itself, are all being sought out eagerly.

Economic Results of Cold Storage. By James Wilson. U. S. Department, Agricultural Reports. Government Document, 1911.

A special investigation was undertaken by the Department of Agriculture in which detailed information regarding the cold storage industry was collected by means of schedules submitted to the cold storage warehousemen, and prices were compiled from the literature of the subject for the last thirty years, with the special object of securing data regarding fluctuations in price before cold storage existed or was of considerable importance, and comparing such data with fluctuations in recent years during which the business has grown to large proportions.

On the basis of the information collected, such questions are considered as the length of time commodities remain in storage, the principal months when they are received, the percentage held for longer than a year, the average length and the costs of storage, the tendency to uniformity of prices throughout the year, speculation, and stored goods as a percentage of consumption.

As regards delivery, "The important observation to be made is that the receipts into cold storage are entirely or very nearly exhausted by the deliveries within ten months."

With respect to costs of storage, "It is evident that as the time of storage lengthens, the costs and their percentage of the wholesale price must be multiplied by the number of months. If the storage is for fifteen months, for instance, the cost per pound ranges from 5.273 cents for fresh mutton to 8.572 cents for butter, and is 8.898 cents per dozen for eggs; the costs for fifteen months range from 36.5 per cent of the wholesale price in the case of butter to 57.5 per cent in the case of fresh mutton.

"Approximately the wholesale prices of the commodities mentioned are increased by cold storage to the extent of the percentages just given"

Cold storage has influenced considerably the relative monthly consumption of commodities and has made it more even throughout the year.

"There has also been a change in relative monthly prices, due to cold storage. In the case of eggs the relative price has increased in the season of natural plenty and diminished in the period of natural scarcity."

"In the cases of both butter and eggs the annual price level has been raised by cold storage, for a reason apart from the costs."

With respect to the tendency to uniform prices throughout the year, an examination of the data collected regarding the range of prices "substantially indorses the other process, in pronouncing in favor of a tendency toward uniformity of prices with regard to butter, eggs, poultry, and fresh mutton, and of a tendency away from uniformity with regard to fresh beef and fresh pork."

With regard to the extent of the cold storage enterprise, the report points out that "This business of storing foods has grown to such proportions that consumers

have a rightful concern with its management for economic as well as sanitary reasons. From the returns made to this department by the cold-storage warehousemen, it is inferable that the fresh beef, fresh mutton, fresh pork, poultry, butter, eggs, and fish received into cold storage in a year amount to a weight of at least 1,000,000,000 pounds and very likely to a quarter of a billion more.

"The eggs received into storage in a year are approximately 13½ per cent of the farm productions; the fresh beef is over 3 per cent of the census commercial slaughter of cattle; mutton over 4 per cent of that slaughter of sheep and lambs; fresh pork 11½ per cent of that slaughter of hogs; and butter 25 per cent of the creamery production."

From the investigation as a whole, the following recommendation is made with reference to publicity:

"This is no indictment of the men who keep foods in cold storage except in so far as they sometimes speculate, nor need they be indicted for offenses in order that the public economic interest in their business may be made to appear. The foregoing matter, it may be supposed, establishes that. The man who places food in cold storage is somewhat in the situation of the man who forestalls the market. He may not attempt to do so, but the power may be a temptation.

"The affairs of such a business as this should have publicity. The public ought to know how much goods are in storage from month to month and what the movements of receipts and deliveries are.

"The food warehousemen should be required to send to Washington monthly reports containing the desired information. Here these reports could be promptly aggregated and the results could be given to the public on a previously announced day of the month, somewhat as the crop reports are."

Refrigeration and Food Products. Ber. II. Internat. Kältekong. Wien. 1. 1910.

A number of papers were presented at the Second International Refrigeration Congress at Vienna of special interest to students of nutrition and related matters.

Volume 2 contains the full papers and volume 1 the discussions, lists of members, and other general data.

Among others the following papers may be mentioned: Changes in the Physical and Morphological Character of Foods (Meat, Fish, and Milk), by Bützler; Cooling Houses and Other Buildings in the Tropics, by J. F. H. Koopman; Studies of the Preservation of Horseflesh by Cold and Its Use for Food Purposes, by A. Costa and N. Mori; The Effect of Low Temperatures on the Life Processes of Fruits and on the Rate of Fermentation of Cider, by H. C. Gore; The Refrigeration of Poultry and Eggs in the United States, by Mary E. Pennington; The Manufacture of Ice, by Sandras; An Improved Method of Packing Guttled Fish for Transport and Keeping it Fresh and Sweet for a Long Time, by A. Soelling; A New Application of Low Temperature to the Preparation of Concentrated Food Extracts or Solids, Particularly Milk Powder, by F. G. Lecomte and A. R. Loinville; The Preservation of Eggs by Low Temperature, by F. Lescarde; Importation and Exportation of Meat to Different Countries with Special Reference to the Use of Cold Storage and Frozen Meat in the Netherlands, by F. B. Löhnis; The Relative Value of Frozen and Refrigerated Meat for Food Purposes, Particularly with Reference to the Army, the Navy, and Public and Private Institutions, by H.

Martel; Refrigeration and Ventilation of Inhabited Places, by H. Torrance, Jr.; Relative Value of Frozen and Refrigerated Meat in General and Particularly for the Army and Large Groups, by H. Viry; Cold Storage and the Preservation of Fresh and Salted Meat, by L. van Wanjenbergh; Feeding the Nations, by A. de Wendrich; and Several Methods of Testing Cold Storage Insulation, with Comparative Results, by W. M. Whitten.

Mince Meat and Other Pure Food and Drug Topics. By E. F. Ladd and Alma K. Johnson. North Dakota Station, Special Bulletin 2, No. 51, 912.

In view of the fact that so much commercial mince meat is used the report of work carried on with such materials at the North Dakota Agriculture Experiment Station is of interest. Results are reported and discussed of the examination of 51 samples of mince meat and of miscellaneous food stuffs.

Of the samples examined, 19 contained no meat or less than 1 per cent (i.e., no meat fiber could be detected), 18 contained less than 3 to 6 per cent meat, and 14 less than 6 to 10 per cent. In cases of samples containing no meat fiber, "the flavor of meat was undoubtedly due to the presence of meat extract."

Seven of the samples contained glucose. Commenting on the results of their investigations, the authors state that "to add starch or glucose, making the same largely a constituent of the [mince] meat, is equally deceptive. The fruit cannot legitimately be tomatoes, or apple skins, or waste material generally discarded as articles of food."

According to the authors' view, few of the preparations examined were entitled to be classed as mince meats under ordinary definitions.

The bulletin also contains a paper on the determination of ash of vinegar, by R. H. Remington.

The Elimination of Caffein: An Experimental Study of Herbivora and Carnivora. By W. Salant and J. B. Rieger. U. S. Department Agricultural Bureau of Chemistry, Bulletin 157.

According to the authors' investigations, caffein introduced subcutaneously, by mouth, or intravenously, is eliminated by rabbits and guinea pigs in part unchanged, in the urine, into the gastrointestinal canal, and into the biles. The amount recovered in the urine was in most cases approximately 6 to 10 per cent with rabbits and 6 to 11 per cent with guinea pigs. More caffein was eliminated by rabbits on a diet of carrots than of oats and hay, and similar results were obtained with guinea pigs. The reverse was noted with the elimination into the gastrointestinal tract, which was marked with both kinds of animals.

"The presence of very small quantities of caffein in the gastrointestinal contents of animals at the end of 48 hours points to its reabsorption into the circulation, since destruction of caffein is highly improbable on account of its resistance to bacterial action."

Cats and dogs were found to eliminate very small quantities, slightly over 1 per cent of the amount ingested. "The elimination of caffein begins soon after its introduction into the circulation. It was found in the urine from 15 to 40 minutes after its subcutaneous injection and in some cases continued to be present for 48 hours. The greater part, however, is eliminated during the first 24 hours, only small quantities being found in the urine later.

"The data herein presented lead to the conclusion that in the carnivora larger amounts of caffein are demethylated than in the herbivora, and that the resistance to caffein is inversely as demethylation, since it has been shown that caffein is much more toxic for carnivora than for herbivora. The mechanism of demethylation is in all probability utilized in the body as a means of defense against the deleterious action of caffein, being more active in organisms for which the drug is more toxic."

A bibliography is appended.

Some Experiments on the Relative Digestibility of White and Wholemea Breads. By L. F. Newman, G. W. Robinson, E. T. Halman, and H. A. D. Neville. *Jour. Hyg. (Cambridge)*, 12, No. 2, 1912.

The chief purpose of the experiments reported was to study the relative digestibility of white and so-called "standard" breads. The tests were made with four men and were of seven days' duration.

"With regard to digestibility, the information given by the experiments may be looked upon as conclusive. The four individuals who ate the breads varied greatly in physical type, and the two forms of bread were eaten by all under strictly comparable conditions.

"As measured by energy and protein the degree of absorption in different individuals showed marked uniformity. In the case of phosphorus one individual showed a degree of absorption which was considerably less than that of the other subjects. The results as a whole lend no support to any extreme view as to the advantages or disadvantages possessed by standard bread; at any rate as regards the availability of the main, and more familiar food constituents.

"With respect to the availability of their total energy white bread and standard bread differ but little. With regard to protein there is a distinct advantage on the side of white bread, some $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent more of its nitrogen-content being absorbed.

"On the other hand, the experiments lend no support to the belief that the phosphorous compounds of bread of the "standard" type are worse absorbed than those of white bread, so that the former contains an appreciably larger amount, not only of total, but of available phosphorus. The ratio of available phosphorus to available nitrogen stands, in the case of the standard bread, nearer to the ratio present in efficient mixed dietaries, a circumstance, however, which becomes of practical significance when only bread forms a large proportion of a person's dietary."

The Number and Varieties of Bacteria Carried by the Common Housefly in Sanitary and Insanitary City Areas. By G. L. Cox, F. C. Lewis, and E. E. Glynn. *Jour. Hyg. (Cambridge)*, 12, No. 3, 1912.

Results of examinations of 450 flies caught in different parts of Liverpool are reported.

More bacteria and more intestinal bacteria were found in flies caught in the congested and insanitary parts of the city than in the suburban areas. No pathogenic bacteria were found in flies caught in suburban areas. As many as 350,000 bacteria came from one fly struggling in a liquid.

"Flies caught in milk shops apparently carry and contain more bacteria than

those from other shops with exposed food in a similar neighborhood. The reason of this is probably because milk when accessible, especially in the summer months, is suitable culture medium for bacteria, and the flies first inoculate the milk and later reinoculate themselves, and then more of the milk, so establishing a vicious circle."

Bluebottles were found to harbor more bacteria than houseflies in an eating place opposite a slaughterhouse.

"In cities where food is plentiful flies rarely migrate from the localities in which they are bred, and consequently the number of bacteria they carry depends upon the general standard of cleanliness in that locality."

Flies rarely migrate far, hence local cleanliness is of value to the inhabitants of any portion of the city.

"It is clear that flies from the suburbs where infantile diarrhea is rare carry far less bacteria than those in the city where it is common. It was, nevertheless, impossible in the time at our disposal to correlate exactly the number or varieties of bacteria carried by flies in the city with the number of cases and deaths from infantile diarrhea in individual streets.

"As the amount of dirt carried by flies in any particular locality, measured in terms of bacteria, bears a definite relation to the habits of the people and the state of the streets, it demonstrates the necessity of efficient municipal and domestic cleanliness, if the food of the inhabitants is to escape pollution, not only with harmless but also with occasional pathogenic bacteria."

Fuel Oil. By J. B. Aleshire. War Department (U. S.), Report of Quartermaster General, 1912. p. 13.

A brief account is given of the results of tests with two systems of oil burning in two of the new barracks at Fort Winfield Scott.

The preliminary reports which have been submitted "indicate that 70 per cent savings in fuel can be made by the use of fuel oil. . . . The installation of these burners does not require the modification of the heating and cooking apparatus to be such that it can not with slight change be put back for the use of coal, and steps will be taken to investigate the advisability of the use of fuel oil at all posts on the Pacific coast."

BOOKS RECEIVED

The Kitchen Fire and How to Run It. Samuel S. Wright, Fuel-Saving Expert. Scranton, Pa. \$0.75.

The Story of Textiles. By Perry Walton. Boston: Lawrence and Company.

Candy-Making Revolutionized. By Mary Elizabeth Hall. New York: Sturgis and Walton Company. \$0.75 net.

Health on the Farm. By H. L. Harris, Secretary of the Georgia State Board of Health. The Young Farmer's Practical Library. New York: Sturgis and Walton Company. \$1.00 net.

Home Waterworks. By Carleton J. Lynde. The Young Farmer's Practical Library. New York: Sturgis and Walton Company. \$1.00 net.

Institution Recipes. By Emma Smedley. Media, Pa. \$1.25. By mail \$1.35.

When Mother Lets Us Cook; When Mother Lets Us Help. By Constance Johnson. **When Mother Lets Us Cut Out Pictures.** By Ida Boyd. **When Mother Lets Us Sew.** By Mrs. Ralston. New York: Moffat, Yard and Company. \$0.75 each.

Method of Race Regeneration. By C. W. Saleeby. New York: Moffat, Yard and Company. \$0.50.

Increasing Home Efficiency. By Martha B. and Robert Bruère. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.50.

A Book of Hand-Woven Coverlets. By Eliza Calvert Hall. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. \$3.00.

School Feeding. By Louise Stevens Bryant. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. \$1.50.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The School for Housekeepers conducted annually by the Household Science Department of the University of Illinois was held from January 13 to 23, and proved to be very popular, as well as helpful. Over 350 women were in attendance, almost double the registration of the preceeding year. The program was varied, consisting of lectures, demonstrations, and discussions. No laboratory work was offered owing to the crowded conditions which must prevail until the completion of the addition to the Woman's Building. The subjects included Home Life in Many Lands, Landscape Gardening, Home Nursing, Physical Development of Children, Home Decoration, Care of Flowers, Planning Meals, Principles of Jelly Making, Cost of Food, Home Dressmaking, Home Millinery, and other topics. One day was taken up with a discussion of farm problems and many country women who were unable to be present for the two weeks came especially for this day. One evening meeting was held at which Miss Mary Snow of Chicago talked on The Responsibility of the Housekeeper Toward the Budget. Immediately following this two week's course, the department offers two extension courses at the University, one in cooking and one in sewing, open without prerequisites or fees. Twice as many applications were received as could be accommodated.

The Movable Schools offered by the department continue in demand. The whole field for extension work seems to be developing rapidly.

Short course work at Ames began six years ago with Miss Mary F. Rausch as the only instructor. The following year Miss Edith C. Charlton came to assist Miss Rausch. In December, 1908, Miss Neale S. Knowles took up the work with Miss Charlton, Miss Rausch having resigned. At that time two instructors were fully able to take care of the work. Since then, the demands for help have increased so rapidly that during the present year five regular instructors and a graduate assistant for each instructor have been required to take care of the work. Since September sixty-two regular short courses have been held, all of which except thirteen 3-day courses, were one week. Those in charge of the short courses are Miss Neale S. Knowles, Mrs. Louise H. Campbell, Miss Idaho Sutherland, Miss Jessie Austin Boyo and Mrs. C. B. McCoy.

In addition to the regular short course work many engagements have been met with institutes, clubs and other organizations.

At no time since the work began have the demands been so urgent, the attendance so great, and the interest so genuine.

The Florida State College for Women gave its first short course in home economics, from February 4 to 15. Miss Agnes Ellen Harris, Miss Palmers, and Miss Clark were in charge of the work. A schedule of the course which is very suggestive has been sent to the JOURNAL. Doubtless copies of this schedule may be obtained from Miss Harris, at the College.

A short course in home economics was held at the Maryland Agricultural College from January 13 to 18. This is the second year such a course has been given, and as more than 150 registered it seems to show that the work is wanted in Maryland. At the end of the week a quiz on correcting improper menus showed that the class had learned much in dietetics and that the work was well understood. In addition to the courses mentioned in the December JOURNAL a course in First Aid to the Injured was given. A popular lesson was one in beef cutting. A specially prepared print of the bony structure was used that showed the shape of the bone in each cut. It is hoped that next year a longer course can be given.

The Michigan Agricultural College does not give a short course in the winter, but holds at the college what is called a "State Round-up Institute" for four days, the last of February. During the meetings several sessions are given to the work of the women. The program this year included the following topics: The physical woman, Mrs. Jas. W. Helme; How can we solve the problems of the farm home? Miss Ilena Bailey, of the Farm Management Division of the U. S. Department of Agriculture; The value of recreation, Mrs. C. L. Barber; They help everyone his neighbor, Miss Jennie Buell; The home education of the child, Mrs. Dora H. Stockman; Gardens and pets for children, Mrs. Myra V. Bogue. Special demonstrations for the women were also given; Plants and flowers for the garden and house; Ornamental trees and shrubs for lawn planting; The use of sale patterns; and Roasting of meats. The classes and laboratories of the Home Economics Department were open to all visitors, and there were also special exhibits illustrative of the work done by the students in this department.

The Department of Home Economics, University of Missouri, is still growing rapidly. It has been housed for the last two years in temporary quarters, an old hotel building in the town having been leased and made over for the purpose. While this has in many ways been unideal, it has served to give the additional room which has been very much needed. The total enrollment in this department for the first semester was about three hundred, representing an individual enrollment of over a hundred and fifty young women. This will be increased by about seventy-five new students the second semester.

This is the second year of the short course for women. This course lasts seven weeks, commencing the first of January. Twenty-one young women from the farm homes over the state are entered in this course.

At the annual meeting of the Missouri State Teachers' Association at Springfield in November, there was formed a branch association for the teachers of household arts and science to be known as the Missouri Association of Household Arts and Science. It is the plan of this association to divide the state into sections in order to facilitate more intensive work. Each section will have a chairman whose duty it will be to direct the work in her territory. It will affiliate with the Missouri Association of Applied Arts and Science on the one hand, and the Missouri Home-Makers' Conference on the other. Plans are being worked out by means of which it is hoped to stimulate the work all over the state. The officers for this year are: chairman, Miss Louise Stanley, Columbia; treasurer, Miss Anthony, Maryville; secretary, Miss Winona Woodward, Columbia.

The New Jersey State College of Agriculture has given its first course in home economics during this past winter. Tuesday, January 14, was designated as a special day for the Home Economics Committee of the New Jersey State Federation of Women's Clubs, of which Mrs. Ephraim T. Gill of Haddonfield is chairman.

During the year 1912-1913, 353 students were enrolled in the Department of Household Economics. The number is fast outgrowing the equipment. Mrs. Mary S. Woolman, who has been head of the Department of Home Economics at Teachers' College, has been appointed temporary head of the Department of Home Economics at Simmons. By reason of Professor Woolman's election as president of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union in Boston, the affiliation between the two institutions will be strengthened. The Union offers itself as a practical laboratory for Simmons students and it is expected that the opportunities for work there will be increased.

Dr. Selskar M. Gunn of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology is giving lectures in sanitary science during the absence of Professor Sedgwick.

A new course under the direction of Miss Lundberg is offered to the students of home economics this year. By an affiliation with the settlement houses of the city the classes in cooking and sewing are put in charge of Simmons students. A senior is head of each class with a junior as assistant. The students are able to work out in their teaching the principles gained in education classes at the college.

At the celebration of Home Economics Day Dean Arnold spoke to several of the classes of the meaning of the day, and of the value of Mrs. Richards' contribution to home economics.

Home Economics Day was observed December 3, 1912. To quote "in honor of Ellen H. Richards, the one to whom we are greatly indebted for the wonderful progress and steady growth of the household sciences and arts as a subject of instruction in our colleges, universities, normal and public schools, women's clubs, and other civic organizations."

"Mrs. Richards gave her life for the betterment of every home in country and city. 'Her gift to her country and its future has been an immeasurable educational influence in sanitation and the conservation of all natural resources and human forces.'"

The Home Economics Association of Philadelphia did honor to the memory of Ellen H. Richards on Home Economics Day, December 3. Through the courtesy of Miss Mary E. Parker the meeting was held at the William Penn High School and the department of art and home economics was open for inspection. A group of the students served tea to the guests at the close of the meeting.

The president of the Association, Miss Imogene C. Belden, presided at the meeting and introduced the speaker. Miss Margaret Limerick read the sketch of Mrs. Richard's life based on Miss Hunt's biography, and Dr. A. P. Brubaker read an article from the *Biochemical Magazine* written by Miss Seaman. The latter gave a very complete account of Mrs. Richard's busy life from the scientist's viewpoint, and with these two very able sketches we feel that we have

some slight conception of what Mrs. Richards has done for the betterment of our American homes.

The birthday of Ellen H. Richards was celebrated at Howard University, Washington, D. C., by the recently established Department of Home Economics, of which Mrs. Helen Brooks Irvin is director. The program included an address by Mrs. Julia W. Shaw, director of domestic science in the colored schools of Washington, upon the subject The Scope of the Domestic Science Teacher, and one by Miss Caroline L. Hunt, of the Office of Experiment Stations, on The American Home and its Debt to Mrs. Richards.

Home Economics Day, December 3, was appropriately observed at the Michigan Agricultural College. The exercises were in charge of the honorary society, Omicron Nu, and took the form of an afternoon tea, with program. Invitations were extended to members of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, the College Woman's Club, the senior women, and the faculty of the department. The program, which was participated in by both students and faculty, consisted of musical selections and papers on the life of Mrs. Richards and the progress in home economics. An old copy of Xenophon's *Economics* created much interest.

The sixth annual meeting of the Missouri Home-Makers' Conference was held in Columbia, January 14 to 17 inclusive. This was conceded by all concerned to be the most successful meeting yet held. A greater interest is shown each year, as is indicated by the increased attendance of women from all over the state.

The last two years especial attention has been given to the study of some of the industries which farm women may carry on in and about the home for profit, such as dairying, poultry raising, canning, and flower culture. The members themselves are leaders of these discussions and experts in the various lines are brought in to answer perplexing questions.

This year the conference was especially fortunate in having Miss Edna D. Day, who, as chairman of the Department of Home Economics, University of Missouri, was the founder of our conference. Miss Day spoke on "The Problem of the Girl."

One of the most interesting features of the program this year was a Child Welfare Exhibit under the direction of Mrs. C. W. Greene, state chairman of home economics. This was composed of material illustrating the different phases of child life. There was a permanent exhibit of clothing for children of all ages, games for children, books for children, pictures for the home, music for children in the home and each day the class in dietetics prepared and displayed a balanced daily ration for a child of a definite age. This exhibit was supplemented each day by a talk at the end of both morning and afternoon sessions on the various phases of the work in the interest of children. The culmination of the whole program was a baby show which came on Friday afternoon. The babies were scored by a special score card prepared by Dr. C. W. Greene of the department of physiology. The mothers were most interested in the score made by their babies, and many easily remedied defects were brought in this way to the attention of the mothers. This con-

test was so successful in every way that an attempt is to be made to introduce it into all the county fairs in the state this summer. A copy of the score card may be had by sending to Miss Nelle Nesbitt, corresponding secretary Missouri Home-Makers' Conference, Columbia, Mo.

During the last week in January the Association known as Organized Agriculture met in Lincoln, Nebraska. Two of the nineteen associations held their meetings in the city, the others met at the State University Farm, three miles distant from the city. At this time the Nebraska Home Economics Association held a two days' session in Home Economics Hall. Over 300 people attended the lectures and demonstrations. Mrs. A. E. Davisson was elected president of the Association for next year. Her connection with the extension department of the University will be valuable in increasing the correlation between the various lines of home economics work throughout the state. A short course, including laboratory work, is much desired and will be offered as soon as laboratory space and the size of the instruction force will allow.

A Business Woman's Exchange was opened at 1338 G Street N. W., Washington, on January 15. The exchange is a coöperative organization of business women, and its object is to establish a bureau for business women where all matter pertaining to their business interests can center. We quote from the circular "The whole spirit of the organization is coöperation, each helping the other in every possible way. We do not guarantee a position to any one under any circumstances as it is obvious that such a guarantee could not be given in good faith. But every effort will be made to find satisfactory employment for every competent woman who will keep in touch with the office and make every reasonable effort in her own behalf." There are two classes of membership; first class, members eligible to positions paying \$10 per week and upward; and second class, members eligible to positions paying less than \$10 per week.

At the recent International Live Stock Show in Chicago demonstrations and lectures that proved a great attraction were given on the preparation of the cheaper cuts of meat. This feature was given prominence and was intelligently presented by the home economics departments of the Kansas and Iowa Agricultural Colleges, and large audiences gathered twice daily.

The school board of Cheyenne, Wyoming, has voted to establish departments of manual training and domestic science in the schools, to be ready for the opening of the next school year.

Brief Notes Saco, Maine, has manual training for the boys of the eighth and ninth grades. Domestic science classes have been arranged for the girls of corresponding grade by the Educational and Industrial Union of the city.

Manual training and domestic science departments have been organized in the high school at Greenville, Texas.

It is proposed to unite the Iowa Manual Arts Association and the Iowa Home Economics Association, and to hold a joint meeting on some Friday evening in February or March, followed by separate programs and sessions on Saturday morning.

The first institute for teachers of Home Economics in Mississippi was held at the Industrial Institute and College, Columbus, Miss., February 26-March 1.

This institute was attended by teachers in the agricultural high schools of the state, and the city high schools. Representatives and speakers attended from Alabama, Tennessee, and Florida. The institute was held under the direction of Miss Mabel Ward, Director of Home Science at this college.

The Industrial Institute and College also offers two short spring courses of six weeks each. These courses are planned for the country teachers who wish to do school improvement work, or to offer some industrial training in connection with grade work. Short courses in cooking will be given especially for teachers who wish to do summer work in connection with the tomato club work now so important in the state.

The Industrial Institute and College offers a special two years' course for teachers and this course furnishes the teachers for nearly all the public schools in the state.

The Extension Service of the Massachusetts Agricultural College has made another distinct advance by the addition of Home Economics work to their courses. Miss Laura Comstock, for the past four years head of the Home Economics Department in the University of Maine, has been appointed to fill the new position.

Professor Comstock was reared on a farm in New York State. She attended country and village schools and has taught in country schools, normal schools, and has done university work. She is a graduate of Buffalo Normal School and of Pratt Institute, and brings to this important work in Amherst a knowledge of rural life and interest in it, and the best of scientific training.

Miss Comstock will begin her work at Amherst July 1 next with courses in the Summer School. After this is completed she will organize work with teachers in the public schools; give instruction in the Extension Schools; arrange the programs for Farmers' Week and the Summer Conference; organize work in canning in the Boys' and Girls' Clubs; and give lectures and demonstrations before Granges, Women's Clubs, and other organizations.

The Long Island Railroad Company which conducts two agricultural experiment stations on Long Island, is making some experiments, under the direction of Mr.

and Mrs. H. B. Fullerton, of the value of the fruit that usually goes to waste on the average farm. From the report of the work done on the Farm. in 1911 we quote the following: "By waste or surplus we mean such items as the following: When tomatoes are sorted for shipment only the most perfect are selected, any that are over-ripe, or mis-shapen or split are withheld. In order to keep berry vines in full bearing they must be picked every day but Sunday. Saturday's pick, is, as a rule, too soft to ship on Monday. Fruit trees must be thinned in order to allow the best fruit plenty of room in which to develop. Nubbins of corn; a small pick of peas or beans; green tomatoes left on the vines when the frost comes, all have a commercial value when cooked and put in glass jars." At the end of the season the amount of material thus conserved numbered nearly 100 varieties and a total of 5507 glasses, jars and bottles. This we understand is on an average sized farm. But this experiment in order to be of real value should report on time used in caring for these surplus crops together with its value per hour.

ASSOCIATIONS.

The second National Conference on Housing in America held in Philadelphia December 4-6, 1912, was an instructive, enthusiastic and hopeful gathering.

Philadelphia tried to be frank and honest with her delegates, **Second Annual** and on the first day gave them a tour of the worst housing con-
National Hous- ditions in the city, and on the second day a tour of the improved
ing Conference. housing conditions. This city is peculiarly fortunate in its small houses, and it was stated at the conference that it has the best system of these in the country. The model small house shown to the delegates, which rents as low as from \$16 to \$18 per month, contains six rooms with a bath, laundry and cellar. A swinging transom window opening into the dining-room from the first stair landing gives light in the entry, and the stairs are open to the living-room. The dining-room and the living-room are connected by a small arch way under the second floor landing. A commodious cupboard, containing an electric light is placed under the stairway. Two windows in the dining-room open onto an open space between the two houses. The kitchen, well lighted by a large window and also by a glass door into the laundry is provided with wall cupboards, porcelain sink, and a gas stove with a hot water boiler attached. The cellar stairs lead down from the kitchen. The laundry is a bright, cheerful room with windows on two sides and a glass door opening on the back porch. It is provided with two stationary tubs. A small lavatory opens on the stoop. The small back yard is surrounded by a tight board fence and has a cement walk with enough ground for a lawn or for a vegetable and flower bed.

Upstairs is a large, bright room, above the living-room, and another even brighter room over the kitchen and laundry. Between these two rooms there is a passage and, opening off from it, a small bedroom too small for even one person, and the bathroom. All the rooms are well provided with clothes closets. These houses are in West Philadelphia.

On St. Albans Street the parking and the small park between the fronts of the houses were noticeable. A small, narrow park enclosed by an iron fence runs the length of the block. The whole is in charge of a caretaker who receives 20 cents per month for his labor from each household. The houses have from eight to ten rooms, back yards, and rear driveway and rent from \$23 to \$25 per month.

"Converted" houses or tenements, shown on Diamond Street, were in course of construction from "brown stone front" houses, fairly comfortable for one family, into three-family houses or tenements. Less than 3 per cent of the buildings used for living purposes in Philadelphia are tenements. The majority of these are of the "Converted" type, i. e., former dwellings changed into three-family houses. Where these are changed in accordance with the provision of the law certain set standards of light, ventilation and sanitation are complied with. These buildings are typical of the better class of converted houses. They are to have a common rear yard, with grass and fountain. Each floor is an apartment, with

its private hall. The central room, made by partitioning the former parlor, must, in all such houses be handicapped in the amount of natural light. Apartments similar to these rent, depending upon the neighborhood, for sums varying from \$25 to \$45 and have from three to five rooms and bath. It appeared as if some of the most objectionable features of the old-time apartments were being introduced in these houses, such as narrow stairs, long dark halls and more or less dark intermediate rooms.

At Mifflin Place something was shown of the work of the Octavia Hill Association in the reconstruction of houses. This Association is a 4 per cent philanthropic stock company with a capital of \$200,000 in shares of \$25. It has a real estate investment of \$168,634 and from records to date for the year 1912 will have a gross revenue on this investment of 10 per cent. Altogether it owns 127 houses for 178 families and controls 173 other houses for 390 families. Its aim is to improve insanitary areas by buying and reconstructing old dwellings. It acts as agent for properties whose owners will put them in a sanitary condition, for which service it charges $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on rents collected. By the aid of women rent collectors who are also instructive sanitary inspectors, it maintains a high standard of cleanliness in all its buildings. Mifflin Place is a group of old buildings reconstructed and repaired. The large houses facing Front Street, now tenements, were colonial dwellings, and even now contain much fine woodwork and carved mantels. The smaller houses, dated 1748, are said to have been servants' quarters. This group shows the various types of buildings commonly found in old Philadelphia and includes the "band-box" houses, each having one room on a floor and being three floors high, and the "converted" tenement houses. In all there are 22 buildings housing 44 families. The gross rental is \$4167. The owner does not wish to draw a revenue from the property but permits the earnings to go into improvements or to provide for the purchase of additional houses. When the area was first purchased the lots of the houses facing Front Street were 200 feet deep, some of the present buildings being back yard dwellings. The fences were taken down and the interior court made. The Association has renovated the houses, improved the gardens, and supplied annex kitchens, bath-rooms, etc. At first, the back yards were all thrown into one, but the residents preferred more privacy and upon their request, small yards with substantial gates were fenced in at the back of each house. The rest of the center space was left for a playground which can be used only by the children living in these houses. A shelter was built, a sandbox constructed and swings put up. The residents keep the playground neat and once a week a caretaker puts all in order. One of the houses is used as a social settlement. The houses are never empty and the rents are always paid promptly.

The Girard Estate is a development scheme created by the Estate of Stephen Girard upon a tract of land in South Philadelphia. The houses are two and three stories high, mostly semi-detached, with yard space equal to that of the majority of suburban properties. They are of diversified architecture with ample porches, and contain from seven to nine rooms each. A central heating and lighting plant provides, through underground pipes and wires so laid as to be readily accessible at all times, ample light and heat for all the houses. Cabinet gas ranges are in all the kitchens, thus eliminating all dirt from coal and ashes. The living-rooms are on the second and third floors. The kitchen and the bathroom walls and ceil-

ings have a covering of "Sanitas" capable of being scrubbed with soap and water. Adjoining the kitchen is the laundry, fitted with stationary tubs, and supplied with running hot water from the central heating plant and unlimited in quantity. The houses are not for sale. The lawns and trees are cared for by a force of gardeners in the employ of the Estate. There is a sliding scale of rentals dependent upon the season of the year and fluctuating between \$27 and \$35.50 in the cheaper houses and between \$43 and \$57 in the more expensive ones. Heat is supplied and charged for from September to June. The cost is added to the rent at so much per month, the maximum rent being charged in December and January. These average \$6 per month and are supplied at less cost than if provided by private individuals. There are no ashes to be disposed of. Each house is provided with two canvas bags for waste paper and this is collected every day. Once a week large quantities of paper which have accumulated are collected. The houses appear comfortable and present pleasing varieties in architecture. One naturally looks for a neighborhood house or recreation center of some kind, but none was to be seen. As the Estate is some distance from the amusement center of the city this seems a serious oversight upon the part of the management. The houses also are built near the street, sometimes with hardly any front ground, but this is a custom rather peculiar to Pennsylvania.

The daily luncheons, with three minute reports and discussions were an interesting feature of the conference. At the last luncheon, Jacob Riis spoke of his pleasure in seeing the interest in the housing conditions and in knowing that the people were getting down to the beginnings of troubles. The housing and building inspectors took an active part in the discussions and it is hoped that a closer co-operation will exist between the officials and the social workers. The tenement was condemned as usual and when Dr. Goler of Rochester was asked to speak on the model tenement, he quickly responded that there were no model tenements and never would be until there were model boils and other model sore spots. On Friday evening a banquet at the Bellevue-Stratford was given the conference by the city of Philadelphia. The Rt. Honorable James Bryce, British Ambassador to the United States, was the guest of honor. Dr. Dwight Hillis, of Plymouth Church, Brooklyn Heights, and Rudolph Blankenburg, the reform Mayor of Philadelphia, also spoke. Ambassador Bryce complimented the conference on its interest and work in the fundamental problem of housing and the care of the people. He spoke of the fact that the American cities are often wonderfully provided with parks and boulevards, but lack the little squares, the little air and garden spaces where the children and working people can breathe fresh air near their homes and can rest and play without going long distances. Dr. Hillis emphasized the humanitarian side of the work, the importance of neighborhood friendliness so that there be not such contrast between the inhabitants of the street and those of the alleys.

In his farewell address, Mayor Blankenburg bade the delegates God-speed in his hearty, fatherly German spirit and urged them to bring about new conditions through the reform of the municipal government, by making a government for all the people and by the people, or to use his good German word, just by folks without party lines and free from all state and national politics.

GWENDOLYN STEWART.

The sixth annual convention of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education was held at the Hotel Walton, Philadelphia, on Thursday, Friday and Saturday, December 5 to 7, 1912. A strong program was presented and much significant work was accomplished. In opening the discussion of the problem of training teachers for girls' work, Mrs. M. S. Woolman, president of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, and Miss Florence M. Marshall, principal of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls, New York, submitted among the theses the following:

Vocational and trade schools, for girls have problems peculiar to themselves, and require especially trained teachers.

The method of conducting vocational education should, of necessity, differ greatly between such extremes as the school in the small community with no special industries and the great industrial city. One solution of the problem will not fit all needs.

The training of young women for industry in the large industrial cities presents two especially serious phases: (1) giving them adequate and industrial efficiency with ideals of labor, and (2) making them healthful, effective women fitted for the duties of the home.

To train girls to satisfactorily meet both problems takes time, and the pressure of early wage-earning makes short-time courses necessary because the pre-vocational preparation is not yet a good foundation on which to build; hence time must be taken for preparatory work.

We are not likely to secure the best teachers for teaching of the trades themselves by drawing them from the regular public school and giving them a short additional training in industrial processes.

The very best teachers and the most skilled trade workers are needed, but the combination is difficult to find at present.

In training capable trade teachers, we must expect a greater per capita cost than we are in the habit of giving to the ordinary school teachers.

There are many kinds of teachers needed for industrial education—pre-vocational, secondary-vocational, and trade schools—requiring, in varying degrees, household arts training; efficiency training in trade shops; trade academic training to further industrial intelligence; trade-art training for industrial purposes; training in hygiene in order to better conditions at present interfering with the success of wage-earners, either at trade or at home; practical social and economic information, and much investigation of industry to gain a knowledge of the needs of different localities.

Poor health in women who work is a menace to the future of the country. Special knowledge of hygienic living should be given all teachers who will work in industrial schools. A physician should be in constant attendance in such schools to coöperate with the teaching force and better prepare each wage-earner for the physical strain of the market.

The idea of woman as a home-maker should be ever present when training teachers, but it cannot be emphasized in the short-time trade school of industrial cities as it can in vocational schools in other localities.

Teachers trained in good domestic art courses, and who have taken trade experi-

ence, have been found to make good teachers for vocational schools or for the elementary and intermediate grades of dressmaking in a trade school.

Supervisors and directors of industrial schools should combine broadminded culture, knowledge of working conditions, interest in working people and their lives, modern, social and economic intelligence, the relation of domestic science to health and household arts of life, with a knowledge of trades fitting the supervisor to organize them and judge the value of the courses conducted in them.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION CORNELL MEETING.

The American Home Economics Association will meet at Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, Friday, June 27–Friday, July 4. This time of year was chosen as one when the great majority of members are free to come, and a large attendance is expected. The general plan of the program is to provide for two sessions a day, leaving one-third of the time for the informal conferences, the walks and talks that are so valuable a part of the meeting.

It is hoped that special railroad rates will be granted, but no definite announcement can be made yet regarding this. Cornell University offers its hospitality with a cordiality that few could equal. Sage College will be opened, and a room there will cost 75 cents a day, while meals at the cafeteria will cost from 75 cents to \$1 a day. The maximum cost at Ithaca therefore need not exceed \$2 a day. Those who wish to engage rooms may do so by writing Department of Home Economics, New York State College of Agriculture, Ithaca, New York. There are single rooms and rooms with two single beds. In writing please specify which you prefer.

A detailed account of the program will be sent to all members, and will appear in the June number of the JOURNAL.

T H E

Journal of Home Economics

Home, Institution, School

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JUNE, 1913

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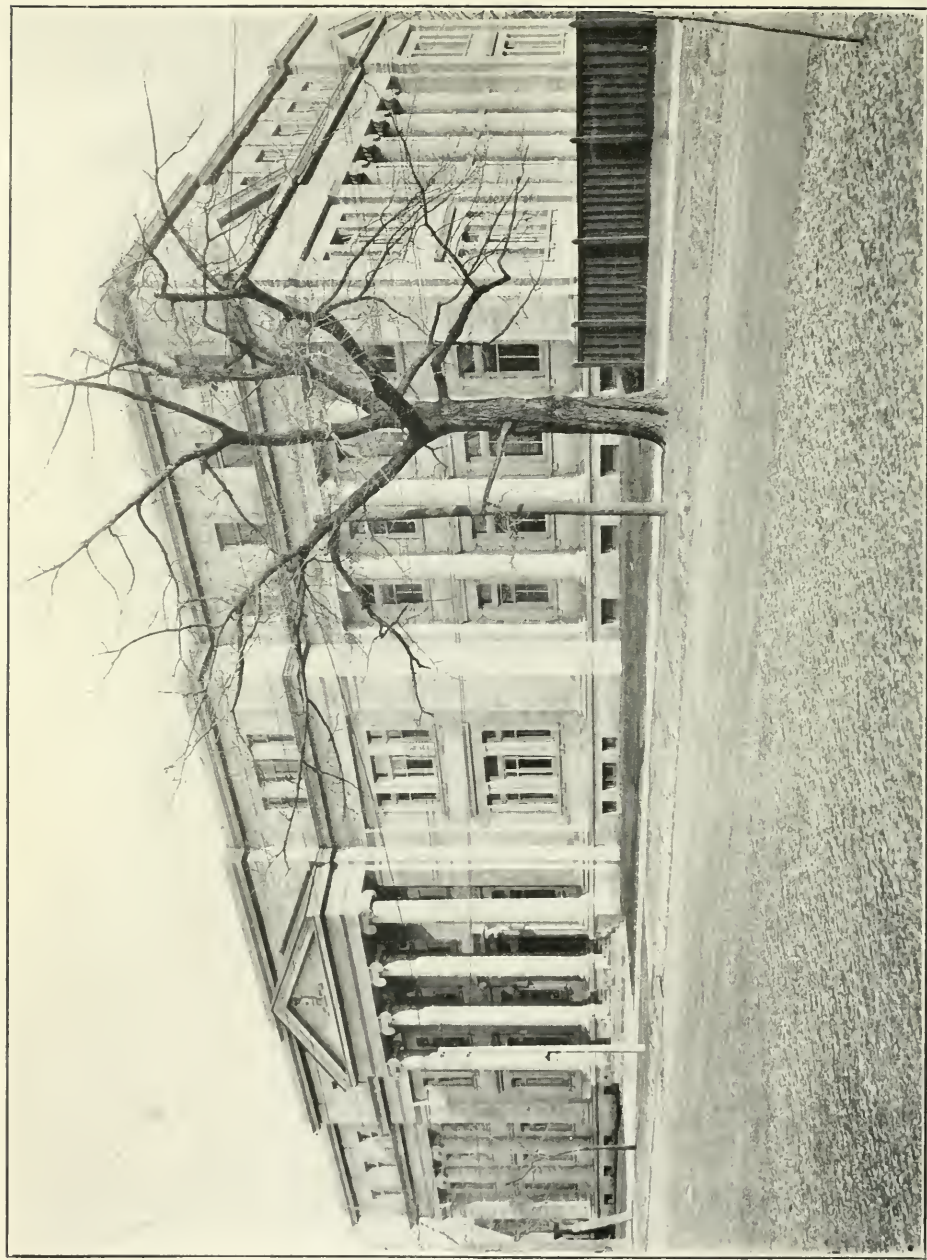
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Household Science Building, University of Toronto.

(See p. 257.)

T H E

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THE WOMEN'S INSTITUTES OF THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO.

GEO. A. PUTNAM, B.S.A.

Superintendent, Toronto, Canada.

So much has been written and so much money devoted to the establishment and carrying on of household economic schools in the centres of population in recent years, that it is interesting to know something of an organization in Ontario which has among its many activities recently introduced a system whereby systematic instruction in "food values and cooking," "sewing" and "home nursing" is provided for the women in our country districts.

The Women's Institutes of Ontario, embracing 750 separate organizations and numbering about 25,000 members, has already accomplished among the women of Ontario a great work towards personal efficiency, home betterment, community improvement, and the establishing of a better social life in our rural districts.

The objects of the Women's Institutes of Ontario are, "the dissemination of knowledge relating to domestic science, including household architecture, with special attention to home sanitation; a better understanding of the economic and hygienic value of foods, clothing, and fuel, and a more scientific care and training of children with a view to raising the general standard of the health and morals of our people; or the carrying on of any work which has for its object the uplift of the home or the betterment of conditions surrounding community life."

Some thirty years ago the provincial government made a provision for instructing the farmers of the province by sending lecturers—practical farmers, agricultural scientists, and veterinary surgeons—

to address meetings held at important centers in the various electoral districts during the winter months, when the farmers had time to take advantage of the instruction given. The farmers' wives were interested in and profited by the instruction in dairying, poultry raising, growing of small fruits, bee-keeping, vegetable growing, etc. About fifteen years ago the women at one of the centers where the Farmers' Institute work has been much appreciated, asked for the formation of an organization to deal with the activities and interests of the farm and the household in which the women were specially concerned. Enthusiasm on the part of the women and the practicability of their various activities have characterized the work of the Women's Institutes from the beginning.

The Women's Institutes have shown greater energy and resourcefulness than the Farmers' Institutes, due partly to a better form of organization. While the Women's Institutes have from the beginning devoted and continue to devote some attention to the agricultural activities mentioned, their thoughts and efforts have been largely concerned with home-making and home-keeping matters. In the early days of the work, domestic science—mostly cooking—largely absorbed the interest of the members. The work of the Institute has, however, developed, and much attention has been given in the past few years to the subjects of child welfare, improving the sanitary conditions of the rural schools, the beautifying of the schools and grounds, civic improvement, medical inspection of schools, home nursing, contagious and infectious diseases, etc.

Some of the subjects discussed by local organizations at their monthly meetings are: School lunches; school sanitation and decoration; medical inspection in schools; the education of the farmers' daughters; the physical and mental development of the child; care and training of children in the home; teaching life truths; laws concerning women; health of women; noted Canadian women; the farmer's wife and her problems; women's work in the world; bee keeping as an occupation for women; small fruits; poultry raising; vegetable growing; butter making; the ideal home; hygiene and health in the home; house decoration; a model kitchen; diet suitable for different ages and occupations; eggs, their preparation and food value; meats, their composition and cooking; care of milk; pickles and canning; laundry work; labor saving devices; domestic art; first aid to sick and injured; home nursing; tuberculosis and its prevention; value of rest; the power and value of the ideal in our lives; household pests; house plants; flowers and

shrubs that are easy to grow; famous composers; current events; our social responsibilities.

Our annual convention of from 500 to 600 delegates from all sections of the province is an occasion of great value and inspiration. The program of last November will indicate the importance and far reaching effects of this annual gathering.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 14, 1912.

Morning.

Registration of Delegates and Devotional Exercises.

Address of Welcome, Mrs. F. H. Torrington.

Reply to Address of Welcome, Miss M. V. Powell, Whitby.

Annual Report, Geo. A. Putnam, Superintendent.

Reports from District and Branch Institutes.

Explanation re. Electrical Household Appliances.

Afternoon.

Topic: Child Welfare.

Report of Committee, Miss A. M. Hotson, Parkhill.

Explanation re. Child Welfare Exhibit, Dr. Helen McMurchy, Toronto.

Address, The Physical Development of the Child (Illustrated), Dr. A. Backus Aylmer.

Address, The Mental Development of the Child, Chancellor A. L. McCrimmon McMaster University, Toronto.

Evening.

Discussion, The work of the District and Branch Secretaries.

Address, Neglected and Dependent Children, Mr. J. J. Kelso, Toronto.

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 15.

Morning.

Discussion of the Work of the District and Branch Officers.

Demonstration Lecture Courses and Systematic Study.

Address, Women and Business Methods, Mr. Alex. Mills, Toronto.

Question Drawer under direction of Miss M. U. Watson, MacDonald Institute, Guelph.

Explanations re. Model Schoolhouse and Gardens, Prof. S. B. McCready, O. A. C., Guelph.

Afternoon.

Question Drawer.

Address, Contagious Diseases and New Medical Health Act, Dr. J. W. S. McCullough, Toronto.

Address, Laws Relating to Women and Children, Mrs. H. W. Parsons, Forest.

Discussion, Labor Saving Devices.

[DEPARTMENT

OF

HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE

Preceding the above sessions a joint meeting was held representing the Women's and Farmers' Institutes, Farmers' Clubs, Horticultural Societies, Fruit Growers' Association. This meeting was addressed by the Hon. Martin Burrell, Minister of Agriculture for the Dominion, the Hon. W. J. Hanna, Provincial Secretary for Ontario, and other prominent speakers.

The proceedings of the annual convention together with selected articles of interest to women are published in an annual report sent to all members. Occasional bulletins are also mailed to the members.

It is impossible to enumerate the many forms in which the Institutes are serving the individual, the community, and the nation. Their field of effort is unlimited, and thoughtful, capable women of high ideals in localities where the work has been longest established are most enthusiastic as to the future of the work.

While the main efforts of the members of the Women's Institutes are toward instruction in those matters which bear directly upon the activities of the woman in the home, it has always been the aim of those in charge of the work to encourage sociability which in many localities is looked upon as one of the strongest features of the Institute. Especially is this true in those sections where the country is as yet sparsely settled. We have Institutes in a few of the newer sections of the country where within a radius of four or five miles there are not more than fifteen or twenty homes established. The Institute in these districts, as well as in some of the more thickly settled localities offers practically the only opportunity for social intercourse. Even in the more thickly settled districts where there are many social advantages, the members prize the social opportunities in the Institute as highly as any other social attraction. Thimble days, travel days, nature study days, recipe days, and "just talk" days afford opportunity for healthful sociability.

It will be seen from the foregoing that the efforts of the Women's Institute are largely toward efficiency in the home; the intellectual, physical and moral betterment of the individuals in the household, the encouragement of civic improvement, the establishment of a fuller and better community life, etc. With all this, the members of the Institute are given assistance towards agricultural betterment, but, as a great majority of the women in our new country find little time for agricultural pursuits, this feature of instruction is as yet of minor importance. The few women who are devoting their attention to agriculture in Canada find the occupation a paying one, and the opportunities for women in fruit growing, vegetable growing, bee-keeping, poultry raising, and dairying are most attractive.

We believe some of the following under-lying principles have been to a large extent responsible for the marked development and unparalleled efficiency of the work undertaken in behalf of the women of Ontario.

In the first place we require that those who form organizations do a certain amount of work upon their own initiative. Each organization is required to hold at least four meetings during the year, and many of them hold a meeting each month. At one or two of these meetings the members are favored with a lecturer sent from the Department of Agriculture.

At other meetings addresses and papers or other forms of instruction and entertainment are provided by the members of the local organization with the assistance of the local teachers, doctors, dentists, business men, lawyers, butchers—whoever has a message of value to the woman of responsibility. While the Department of Agriculture aims to give the very best instruction along lines of importance to the woman in the home, we believe we are doing the greatest service by assisting and encouraging the people to help themselves and to develop and bring out the talent which can be found in every community.

We have avoided all subjects of a political, religious or controversial nature, and have emphasized, as of the most importance, that which is the daily work and concern of the great majority of adult women in our homes, and it is to be noted that from 85 to 90 per cent of our homemakers have to do their own work. We believe in dealing with the practical and bringing to the aid of practical women scientific truths which bear directly upon their various activities. While the organization was established for the purpose of giving instruction, the members have come to appreciate the fact that it is only through their efforts to assist each other that they can derive the greatest personal benefit. When a band of women come together with the object of assisting those members in need of instruction and, also, with the object of doing anything and everything which means the advancement of the community and the betterment of community life, you can depend upon it that every individual will receive much benefit through the effort made.

Our Institutes have, we believe, interpreted the spirit of human helpfulness more effectively than any other organization of which we have knowledge.

The Department of Agriculture has furnished for one or two meetings at each center during the year, lecturers capable of treating such subjects as the following:

Consumption and its prevention; Education of girls; Eugenics; The mother's everyday problems; Health a duty; What a home science training means to a girl; The plant and its relation to the dairyman; Medical inspection in schools; Diet in relation to health; Laws of health; The nervous system: its construction and modern abuse; Physical housekeeping; The school: its relation to the community; Household management; Infant mortality; The care of the eyesight; Dairy sanitation; Buttermaking and other dairy problems; The individual and the community; Child and parent; Heredity; Marriage; Canadian laws concerning women and children; Plain and fancy sewing; Bee keeping on the farm; Germs and their relation to disease; Infectious diseases of children; Home butter making; A woman's part on a dairy farm; Home treatment in mechano-therapy; Canning, preserving and pickling.

In addition to sending speakers to the Institutes occasionally, the Department gives a small grant of \$3 to each branch Institute, and a direct grant of \$10 and \$3 on account of each branch to the district organization, embracing the branches in each electoral district. The amount of the grants for 1912 was \$4,971.

A recent development which promises to be of great value to the women of rural districts and referred to in the opening paragraph of this article, is that of systematic instruction by well qualified teachers in cooking, sewing, and home nursing. The individual Institute, in order to secure an instructor, is required to form a class of at least twenty-five, each person to pay \$1 for the course. The class must also furnish a suitable hall or other building in which to give instruction. The three courses embrace the following: *Cooking*, fifteen lectures and demonstrations on various lines of cooking, including fruits, vegetables, cereals, eggs, meats, bread, cakes, salads, etc. *Sewing*, ten lessons, including waists, skirts, underwear, children's clothing, dresses, etc. with option of adjusting patterns, cutting and fitting, household sewing, etc. *Home Nursing*, ten lessons including the administration of food and medicine, emergencies, bandaging, disinfectants, the sick room, invalid cookery, etc.

A brief article such as this cannot convey a clear idea as to the value of the work which is being done by the large band of practical and capable Institute members in the Province of Ontario. As time goes on the work seems to be appreciated more and more and we believe there is no organization which means more for the future development and stability of the rural districts of Ontario.

The other Provinces of the Dominion, seeing the practicability and good results of the Women's Institute work, are forming similar societies. In British Columbia, the institutes have been established for

several years and are doing excellent work. They now have something over thirty branches in Alberta, and Saskatchewan and Manitoba have given the women in the rural districts instruction along domestic science lines. A few organizations have been formed in each of these Provinces and, with the promised assistance from the Department of Agriculture, it is expected that the work will advance rapidly. In the eastern Provinces no systematic effort has been made to introduce the institute, although a few organizations have been established, and the prospects are that funds will soon be available for the encouragement of the work along somewhat similar lines to those established in Ontario.

At the National Congress of Farm Women, held in Lethbridge, Alta., in October last, an Inter-Provincial organization was formed with the hope of making the institute work in the various provinces somewhat uniform and of introducing features of work which can be followed effectively in all the Provinces.

The day is not far distant when we shall have in the Dominion of Canada organizations of women's institutes reaching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, embracing active organizations in every Province.

CONNECTING THE SCHOOL WITH THE FARM HOME.¹

A unique scheme for promoting more sympathetic and helpful relations between the rural school and the farm home is reported from Oregon. Credit for the project is due to L. R. Alderman, state superintendent of public instruction, who has outlined his plans as follows:

That civilization is founded on the home all will agree. The school should be a real helper of the home. How can the school help the home? How can it help the home establish habits in the children of systematic performance of home duties, so that they will be efficient and joyful home helpers? One way is for the school to take into account home industrial work and honor it. It is my conviction, based upon careful and continuous observation, that the school can greatly increase the interest the child will take in home industrial work by making it a subject of consideration at school. A teacher talked of sewing, and the girls sewed. She talked of ironing, and they wanted to learn to iron neatly. She talked of working with tools, and both girls and boys made bird houses, kites, and other things of interest. A school garden was planned in a city, and one of the boys was employed to plow the land. Seventy-five children were watching for him to come with the

¹ Reprinted from U. S. Dept. Agr. Office Expt. Stas. Ann. Rpt. 1911.

team. At last he came driving around the corner. He could manage a team. He drove into the lot, and 150 eyes looked with admiration at the boy who could unhitch from the sled and hitch on to the plow, and then as he, "man fashion"—lines over one shoulder and under one arm—drove the big team around the field, all could feel the children's admiration for the boy who could do something worth while. I have seen a girl who could make good bread or set a table nicely get the real admiration of her schoolmates.

The school can help make better home builders. It can help by industrial work done in the school, but as that is already receiving consideration by the press and in a few schools, I shall not in this short article treat of it.

The plan I have in mind will cost no money, will take but little school time, and can be put into operation in every part of the State at once. It will create a demand for expert instruction later on. It is to give school credit for industrial work done at home. The mother and father are to be recognized as teachers, and the school-teacher put into the position of one who cares about the habits and tastes of the whole child. Then the teacher and the parents will have much in common. Every home has the equipment for industrial work and has somebody who uses it with more or less skill.

The school has made so many demands on the home that the parents have, in some cases, felt that all the time of the child must be given to the school. But an important thing that the child needs along with school work is established habits of home-making, and these habits can come only from real home-making. What one does depends as much upon habit as upon knowledge. The criticism that is most often made upon industrial work at school is that it is so different from the work done at home that it does not put the child into that sympathetic relation with the home which, after all, is for him and the home the most important thing in the world. Juvenile institutions find that they must be careful not to institutionalize the child to the extent that he may not be contented in a real home. In my opinion it will be a great thing for the child to want to help his parents do the task that needs to be done and to want to do it in the best possible way. The reason that so many country boys are now the leading men of affairs is because early in life they had the responsibility of home thrust upon them. I am sure that the motto, "Everybody helps," is a good one.

But one says, "How can it be brought about? How can the school give credit for industrial work done at home?" This may be accomplished by printed slips asking the homes to take account of the work that the child does at home under the instruction of the home, and explaining that credit will be given this work on the school record. These slips must be prepared for children according to age so that the child will not be asked to do too much, for it must be clearly recognized that children must have time for real play. The required tasks must not be too arduous, yet they must be real tasks. They must not be tasks that will put extra work on parents except in the matter of instruction and observation. They may well call for the care of animals, and should include garden work for both boys and girls. Credit in school for home industrial work (with the parents' consent) should count as much as any one study in school.

To add interest to the work, exhibitions should be given at stated times, so that all may learn from each other and the best be the model for all. The school fairs in Yamhill, Polk, Benton, Lane, Wasco, and Crook Counties, together with the

school and home industrial work done at Eugene, have convinced me most thoroughly that these plans are practicable, and that school work and home work, school play and home play, and love for parents and respect for teachers and fellow pupils can best be fostered by a more complete coöperation between school and home, so that the whole child is taken into account at all times.

That the plan is practicable is indicated by a report made by A. I. O'Reilly, principal of the Spring Valley school, near Salem, Oregon. Under the home credit plan there in operation any pupils who desire to enter the contest may do so and compete for prizes, which, in this instance, include three \$3 prizes and three \$2 prizes which are placed in the bank to the account of the winners.

The plan is to offer so many minutes' credit for each little task which the pupils perform about the house. For example, if the boy or girl builds the fire at home in the morning he is given 5 minutes' credit; milks a cow, 5 minutes for each cow; splits and carries in the wood, a 12-hour supply, 10 minutes; turns cream separator, 10 minutes; cleans horses, 10 minutes for each horse; gathers the eggs, 10 minutes; feeds chickens, cows, pigs, horses, 5 minutes for each kind of animal. For churning butter, 10 minutes are allowed; making butter, 10 minutes; blacking stove, 10 minutes; making and baking bread, 1 hour; making biscuits, 10 minutes; preparing breakfast for family, 30 minutes; preparing supper, 30 minutes; washing and wiping dishes, 15 minutes for each meal; sweeping floor, 5 minutes for each floor; dusting furniture, 5 minutes for each room; scrubbing floor, 20 minutes for each room; making beds, 5 minutes a bed; sleeping in room with window open, 5 minutes; bathing, 30 minutes for each bath; and a number of other classes of work is included.

The one who has the most minutes to his or her credit at the end of a specified time is awarded the prize.

You can see that it is not my intention to give them full credit for the time necessarily spent in home work. I have learned that this world does not give us full credit for our time. Had I learned it when I was younger I believe I would be a better man to-day. I have explained and demonstrated this to my school, thus preparing them early to learn to give more than they get. The plan is an agreement between each pupil and me. If he fails to live up to his part of it he should learn that the violation of his agreement always works a hardship. Perhaps I am teaching some practical business law here.

The plan of the awards starts them on a commercial future and has resulted in my having to tell them all about savings accounts.

I have 33 pupils and receive 33 notes each morning from the parents.

THE GRANGE AND HOME ECONOMICS.

ELIZABETH H. PATTERSON.

Chairman Home Economics Committee, National Grange.

In November, 1912, the National Grange held its forty-sixth annual session in Spokane. This organization which has stood the test of time for nearly half a century is the only secret organization that admits women on an equal footing with the men and the only one that aims to train and educate its members to do better their daily work. Among the specific objects of the Order as set forth in the Declaration of Purposes are found the following: "To develop a better and higher manhood and womanhood among ourselves; to enhance the comforts and attractions of our homes, and to strengthen our attachments to our pursuits;" "We especially advocate for our agricultural and industrial colleges that practical agriculture, domestic science, and all the arts which adorn the home, be taught in their courses of study." These statements would not be unusual or remarkable if written today, but when we consider that this Declaration of Purposes was adopted in 1874 we at once see the great wisdom and broadmindedness of Mr. O. H. Kelley and the other founders of the Order. To Miss Carrie Hall is due the credit for admitting women and placing the home and woman's interests on an equal footing with the work of the farm. It would not be honest or just to claim that the Grange has always lived up to the high ideals set forth in the Declaration of Purposes. It was only after Ellen H. Richards had done her wonderful pioneer educative work that we find a sufficient number of men and women strongly enough imbued with the idea of improving the home by the aid of science to really crystallize this great idea into practical results.

In order to understand how the Grange can do home economics work it is necessary to know something of its organization and working. The unit of the organization is the local Subordinate Grange, meeting regularly either weekly, bi-weekly or monthly. These units combine to make the county group known as the Pomona Grange which meets quarterly. Again the units gather together in the state

organization which holds an annual meeting. The state masters and their wives compose the national organization. Therefore there is direct contact between the thousands of local organizations scattered throughout 30 states and the central national organization.

The Grange thus becomes a great power in legislative matters. This power has always been exercised for legislation beneficial to the farm and the home. Members of the Grange have worked for all of the bills for vocational education, first the Davis-Dolliver bill, then later the Page-Wilson bill, and the bill for extension work in home economics and agriculture known as the Lever bill. Not only have members spoken before Senate and House Committees but strong pressure has been brought to bear on Congress by the patrons throughout the country. The Grange will not withdraw from this fight and will wage it until we have Federal aid for teaching agriculture and home economics in all the grade schools and high schools in the country, as well as good courses in the state agricultural colleges and normal schools to prepare teachers for this work.

At each meeting of the Subordinate and Pomona Granges there is an educational program arranged by the lecturer, including papers or lectures on agriculture, home economics or public questions. In the charge to the lecturer when he is installed is the following: "In selecting subjects, include the household and the home, as well as the farm and the field; for it is in the former that the rewards of labor upon the latter are fully enjoyed. A well ordered household is essential to a happy home, and without a happy home no farm is fully a success." Unfortunately for many years the Grange programs did not give to the women the best advanced thought in home economics to aid them in their work in the same way that it gave men the best thought in scientific agriculture. The women were not alive to their needs and did not demand it, but there has been an awakening during the past few years. Everywhere, all over the country, lecturers are placing on the programs topics that make for home improvement and the members are either studying to prepare papers themselves or they are bringing speakers from their state colleges or other experts to give them a lecture on some home topic. The National Lecturer has prepared a hand-book to aid Subordinate Lecturers and home economics subjects have received a large share of his attention in this publication. Many State Lecturers also have such hand-books for state work and in these home topics are generally given and home economics books recommended.

In addition to these helps the National Grange has a Home Economics Committee to help in creating an interest in scientific home study and to disseminate information and aid in this work. It also tries to keep informed of the status of work in different states. Five years ago the National Grange began systematically to try to create an interest in home economics by publishing in the *National Grange Monthly* a series of popular home economics papers. Many of these papers were written by acknowledged experts so that although they were popular in style the information was scientifically correct. They included articles on sanitation, health, dietetics and cooking. This series was continued for about three years and served its purpose in arousing recognition of the subject and enthusiasm for it.

The Home Economics Committee of the National Grange outlined the home economics work of the Grange for the year 1913 and made various recommendations for state work. In regard to agricultural fairs the report says:

The exhibits at agricultural fairs and expositions are intended not only to attract and interest, but to educate. This education is done not only by the excellent display and arrangement, but by the competition for prizes and by the intelligent judging. Men place products of their own skill in competition with others, always aiming toward the ideal, and these products are judged and scored by points. The judging of live stock, horticultural and agricultural exhibits, has become a business and the managements of fairs and expositions spend large amounts of money to have this work done by experts, often bringing them from long distances, even across the entire continent.

The fair should aim to educate the woman for her work as the man is educated for his and thus improve home conditions as well as farm conditions. The woman's department at fairs has not kept pace with the man's. The exhibits are not generally confined to products showing the home-maker's skill, but often the grandmother's patchwork quilt, a product of bygone days, still holds a prominent place. Such an exhibit is of no value to the modern housewife. At many fairs women's products are judged by the men who know nothing about the article in question, can not even tell the principles involved in the production or what constitutes the ideal. Canned fruit and vegetables are often judged from the appearance in the can, with no regard to quality and flavor. It is not uncommon to find fruit and vegetables only sterilized, looking well but having no practical value for the table, and yet being awarded the prize for appearance over something of practical value that does not make as good a show.

Prof. J. B. S. Norton of the Maryland Agricultural Experiment Station, a prominent member of the Grange in Maryland, who has had much experience in exhibits and the methods of judging, began an investigation of how the best-known agricultural fairs and expositions were judging canned fruit and vegetables. Twenty-eight fairs responded to his request for information. Out of these twenty-one reported that they had no regular method of judging. Four said that the cans were

opened and tested, showing an attempt at careful judgment, and only three reported a regular method of scoring points. He says, "Only in a few cases are any methods of scoring used on canned fruits in the larger exhibition fairs, etc., and rarely is there any time for it, but if such exhibits are to have any real value to the exhibitors or the public, some intelligent methods of scoring must be used. A few domestic science experts and others have devised score cards for fruit products and while some of them are very good it would be hard to imagine a greater dissimilarity in both points and values than they possess."

There should be some standardizing of these methods of scoring. We recommend that the National Grange Home Economics Committee ask the American Home Economics Association to coöperate in this work by appointing a committee to standardize score cards for exhibits in cooking, preserving and needlework. We also recommend that each State Grange use its influence to have such standardized score cards used in judging women's exhibits at the fairs in its state."

The National Grange recommended that each State Master be requested to present the matter of the Ellen H. Richards Memorial Fund to his State Grange and ask that it contribute something to this fund.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

The State Grange can aid home economics work in its state in the following ways:

Arrange to have speakers at the State, Pomona and Subordinate meetings who will awaken interest in the importance of home economics. At most of our state colleges are men and women who are prepared to give help along these lines and would be glad to come to speak and thus get in closer touch with the Grange. In addition to these there are many good speakers, not connected with the state institutions, who are interested in rural work who would be glad to talk on subjects pertaining to the home. Your state board of health will probably coöperate with you willingly to furnish instructive speakers on sanitary and health subjects. The American Medical Association has started a council on Health and Public Instruction with a secretary in each state. They will send speakers on health subjects free to meetings. A list of speakers with subjects and when and how to secure them can be obtained from the American Medical Association, 535 Dearborn Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

In this connection, it is recommended that each State Grange Home Economics Committee or Committee on Education prepare a list of speakers of the state with their charges. These could be exchanged with nearby states when desired. The state lecturer can aid by including home economics topics on the programs he outlines. At least one topic on the home could be given each month.

These topics should be chosen with an idea of encouraging study on the question. Books of reference should be mentioned. Subordinate Granges that have libraries and State Granges that have traveling libraries should include a good selection of books touching on all home economics questions and also all government and state bulletins on home subjects.

Get in closer touch with your state college home economics department, first by becoming acquainted with the professors, then by interesting them to become members of the Grange and show them how such a step would be of mutual benefit. When your college gives a week's short course in economics or has a farmers' week help to advertise it and urge the members of the Grange to attend. Each Subordinate Grange could well afford to send a delegate for such a course. The information thus gained by an intelligent woman would be brought back to the Grange and be fruit for thought and consideration for the whole year. Some Granges are giving scholarships at their state colleges for both regular and short courses. This is a good plan and productive of good not only to the recipient but to the whole Grange. If your college is not doing much for the farm woman, urge them to gradually adopt the methods and work found successful in other states.

Demand that the fairs in your state adopt better methods for judging women's exhibits as suggested before in this report.

Assist your college, station and extension department to get increased appropriations from your legislatures for doing work for the women as well as for the men. And finally make a supreme effort to help push a bill for vocational education through the next Congress.

NATIONAL GRANGE ACTIVITIES.

After considering the suggestions made by the different states as mentioned before in this report, we recommend that the National Grange Home Economics Committee coöperate with the State Grange in preparing lists of available speakers on home economics subjects.

That it prepare for publication a leaflet giving a list of good reference books on home economics subjects.

That with the help of some of the college home economics departments, it prepare a year's outline of study in home economics.

The National Grange Home Economics Committee of 1913 is again at work. We are preparing the list of reference books on home economics subjects and we hope to influence state circulating libraries to include these books. The question of standardizing score cards has been taken up with the American Home Economics Association and work has been started on the year's outline of study.

THE HOME ENVIRONMENT AS AFFECTING THE PHYSICAL AND MENTAL GROWTH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.¹

SARA MOULTHROP HOLBROOK.

This study was undertaken in an effort to determine the home conditions and their influence upon the physical and mental growth of a group of public school children. Of the 580 children studied, the answers from 22 were not sufficiently full and accurate, so these studies are based upon the answers of the remaining 558 children. These have been divided into eight groups as follows:

Jewish girls, 175; Italian girls, 58; American girls, 38. Mixed group, girls: Negro, 4; Irish, 4; Scotch, 1; French, 2; Swedish, 3; Danish, 1; German, 7; Hungarian, 1; total, 23. Total of all, 292.

Jewish boys, 152; Italian boys, 54; American boys, 36. Mixed group, boys: Negro, 5; Irish, 2; English, 1; French, 1; Swedish, 3; Danish, 4; German, 8; total, 24. Total of all, 266.

The children were weighed and measured at school, and their scholarship, age, and health records obtained from school reports. Other facts were obtained from the answers to the following questions:

- (1) What do you have for breakfast? Dinner? Supper?
- (2) What time do you eat breakfast? Dinner? Supper?
- (3) Do you sit down at the table for meals, and about how long do you take for each meal?
- (4) Are you allowed to eat candy, peanuts, etc., between meals?
- (5) What food do you like best?
- (6) Is there any common food that you very much dislike?
- (7) Do you know what makes you dislike it?
- (8) Has your mother tried to have you like it; and how?
- (9) Do you like to try new foods?
- (10) Do you often have headaches?
- (11) Do you often have the stomachache?
- (12) What is your general health?
- (13) How many are in your family?
- (14) How many boarders?

¹From a thesis presented to the faculty of the Hartford (Conn.) School of Religious Pedagogy.

(15) How many rooms have you?

(16) How many windows in your bedroom, and do the windows open on a court, or on the street?

(17) Do you have your bedroom windows open at night?

(18) Do you air the house each day?

(19) At what hour do you go to bed, and at what hour do you get up?

(20) Do you have a weekly tub-bath?

Teachers filled in the answers for children who could not write English. Comparison was made of the answers from children of the same family, and the statements of the children were verified, whenever possible, by questioning the parents. Most of the American children were from the poorer and more ignorant families, hence the data cannot be considered as typical of the American child, but only of those living in the tenement sections of our cities.

The families included from 2 to 14 members, the American and mixed groups averaging 5, the Jewish 6, and the Italians 7. The percentage of families taking boarders was 10 per cent in the American families, 25 per cent in the Jewish, 36.5 per cent in the Italian, and 40 per cent in the mixed group. The average number of rooms per family among the Italians was 4, among the Jewish 5, among the American 5, and among the mixed group 6.8. A Danish family had 60 boarders in 13 rooms.

In a few Italian and Jewish families bedrooms without windows were reported. About half the windows opened on courts, small yards, or "gang-ways," Less than a quarter of the Americans and a little more than a quarter of the Jews, sleep without opening their windows at night, as do about a third of the mixed group and almost a half of the Italians. Many of those who opened windows at night had them open only an inch or two. With four or more occupying a room of small size the supply of fresh air would be quite inadequate even if the window were open wide. "It is found that an adult at rest needs about 3000 cubic feet of air per hour, that the functions of the body may continue. Children and the sick need more than this. Thus a room 18 feet by 18 feet by 9 feet would furnish the required air for one person for one hour without ventilation. At the end of the hour, the entire contents would need to be changed.²

Comparison of these figures with actual conditions in many homes makes evident at least one reason for the fact that so many children

² Household Hygiene, by S. Maria Elliott, p. 36.

have listless faces and do not desire any breakfast. It is very difficult to convince some mothers of the harmlessness of fresh air. One mother in discussing her little boy's frequent colds said, "It is certainly not my fault, for I never have the window open at night, and I have even put his cot in a closet which runs under the stairs and I shut the door almost close." Less than one-sixth of the Jews and Italians, and one-twelfth of the Americans and of the mixed group fail to air their home by day, but it is doubtful if this airing is done at all thoroughly.

There is practically no difference between the bedtime of the boys and girls, but the boys rise earlier than the girls. The average time devoted to sleep is from nine to ten hours, though many get far less. Jewish children appear to get the most and the Italian children the least sleep.

Only 5 per cent of the American girls and 11 per cent of the American boys confessed to not having weekly baths. All the girls of the mixed group reported weekly baths, but 12 per cent of the boys of this group did not. In the Jewish group, 19 per cent of the boys and 26 per cent of the girls could not report a weekly bath, although some said, "Yes, in summer, but never in the winter." Conditions in this respect were found worst among the Italians, only 52 per cent of the girls and 31 per cent of the boys reporting weekly baths. Two said they had never had one, and another said only when he came to America. The child is not wholly to blame for this lack of cleanliness. Lawrence Veiller, who is familiar with tenement conditions, says: "To bathe in a tenement where a family of six occupy three rooms, often involves the sacrifice of privacy and decency, which are quite as important to social betterment as cleanliness."³

Having discussed the home conditions of the children, the next consideration is their diet. The amount and kinds of food required depend largely on age and condition of life. The digestive organs of a child are very delicate, and during early life especial care should be taken in the matter of food. The period of life from eight to fifteen years is one of growth. Much more time is spent indoors than previous to the beginning of attendance at school.

Children show a marked desire for sweets, and this desire is much better satisfied by eating dates, raisins and dried fruits, than by eating candy or even cake. The child of the tenement frequently consumes large quantities of cheap, highly colored candy, which is not only

³ Civics and Health, Wm. H. Allen, p. 9.

impure, but which has often been exposed to dust and dirt. An aversion to fat meats is common with children, and in such cases fats from other sources should be substituted. In general, children's preferences in the matter of diet should be considered and wholesome food which will be agreeable to them should be supplied in sufficient quantities.

Italian and Jewish families appear to suffer most from irregularity in meal time, some of the children who sell papers not eating supper until nine or ten o'clock. A considerable portion do not sit down to meals, 6 per cent of the Italians, 4.5 per cent of the mixed group, 4 per cent of the Jewish, and 2 per cent of the American children getting only what a little Danish boy called "a handover meal."

Where the children are supposed to sit at table the conditions are often such as to produce an aversion to food. One mother, referring to her child who was far from well said, "She don't want nothings I fix; she so fussy." One day at noon the family of five were found grouped about a table in a room with no window open. A dish of stew stood upon the table, and the members of the family took what they desired from this dish with their fingers, sharing with a large cat which was seated on the dirty table!

While the time devoted to a meal varied from two to sixty minutes, the great majority could say as did one child, "I am a quick eater." In most cases, probably insufficient time is spent at meals to permit of proper mastication.

From 47 per cent to 83 per cent of the children said that they are allowed to eat candy and peanuts between meals. The Jewish mothers appear to be the most careful, or rather the least careless, in the matter of their children's diet.

The proportion of children who have not more than two articles at each meal was from 17 per cent to 64.5 per cent. While this would not, in itself, be conclusive evidence that they were poorly nourished, a consideration of the dietary discloses a deficiency of protein, the body-building food material, in many cases. Of the Italian children, only one-half have more than two articles for supper, and less than 50 per cent of the boys and about 70 per cent of the girls report foods rich in protein for any meal.

Three things influence children in trying new foods: the odor, the appearance, and the impulse of imitation. This last is frequently evidenced by their teasing for a taste of something that older people are eating, and in their desire to overcome a dislike for some article

of food. Over 75 per cent of the children reported liking to try new foods, those of the mixed group being most hesitant about it.

In answer to the question as to the favorite food, the great majority expressed a preference for meat. With the Jewish children however meat holds second place, fruit being preferred to it, while their third choice is eggs. Fruit and vegetables⁴ are close rivals to meat with all. A great variety of foods is named, many Americans giving cake or pie, and many Italians voting for macaroni.

In the foods which are disliked, no such uniformity in taste is shown. Meat is most frequently mentioned by the Jewish children as the food to which they have the greatest aversion, while the Italians named cabbage and macaroni.⁵ Only about a third of the children could give any reason for their aversions, the majority mentioning the taste, and a smaller number the appearance. Less than one-half the mothers have tried to have their children overcome these dislikes, the American mothers and those in the mixed group seeming the most indifferent. Many of the mothers have coaxed or punished, or have refused to give any other food. Several of the Italian mothers try by putting the food on a clean plate or one that is pretty. Many children, especially the Jewish, are bribed with pennies.

Because no glaring physical trouble has been discovered by the teachers of these children, none of them has been examined at school beyond taking the eye test and being questioned as to the frequency of headaches and stomachaches. The figures as to ear, tonsil, and adenoid troubles are far from complete therefore, but even so, there is a large percentage of children who are suffering from these troubles. More than a quarter of all the girls, except the American, have eye trouble. On the whole the record of the boys is better. The Americans show a much better physical condition than the other nationalities. From 30 per cent to 58 per cent of the children complain of headache and stomachache. The Americans have the lowest percentage of diseased children.

⁴ Potatoes were mentioned more often than any one vegetable. I do not feel prepared to say, from my study of these children, that children like vegetables. These children are so very limited in their dietaries that they have comparatively little chance to test various vegetables, and when they do eat them they are served in the simplest manner.—AUTHOR.

⁵ These were the only two articles mentioned by any number. A large number could not give any answer. Perhaps the reason for this aversion is due to the fact that the Italians eat so much macaroni.—AUTHOR.

The girls of the mixed group are tallest and heaviest, the Italian girls the lightest, and the American and Jewish girls a little heavier than the Italian. The girls of these three groups average the same in height. The average of weight and height of the boys' groups parallel each other, with the Americans first and the Italians last.

Although many of the older children are in the Jewish and mixed groups, the average age in these groups is lower than that of the other groups in the case of the boys, and as low in the case of the girls. Since many of the foreign children have to learn our language after entering the public school, the American children might be expected to be ahead of children of the same age of other groups in scholarship. The American boys do average youngest for a given grade, but the American girls average oldest. The Italian and Jewish girls average the same, and the girls of the mixed group the youngest. The boys of the mixed group and the Jewish boys show about the same average, but the Italian boys average quite a little older.

In determining scholarship, both standing in the grade and grading according to age were considered. Dr. Ayers⁶ gives a table of normal ages of children in the grades which he says "has been accepted by common consent as the normal ages for these grades by nearly all the schoolmen who have interested themselves in the problem." The following is his table:

Normal ages of children in the grades.

	<i>years</i>
First grade.....	6 to 8
Second grade.....	7 to 9
Third grade.....	8 to 10
Fourth grade.....	9 to 11
Fifth grade.....	10 to 12
Sixth grade.....	11 to 13
Seventh grade.....	12 to 14
Eighth grade.....	13 to 15

Judged by this standard, a very large proportion is below normal; many are several years below.

Only among the Jewish children were any found above grade. The American had the largest proportion up to normal grade, but the Jewish ranked well in comparison. The Italian and mixed groups had the smallest proportion up to normal grade.

In scholarship in his grade the Jewish boy leads with the largest percentages of "Excellent," "Very good," and "Good," and none was marked "Very poor." A small number were marked "Poor"

⁶ Laggards in Our Schools, p. 38.

and a somewhat larger number were marked "Fair." The proportion of Jewish boys receiving above "Fair" was 55.7 per cent, of the American boys 46.1 per cent, of the mixed group 34.5 per cent, and of the Italians 32.9 per cent. The Jewish girls stand at the head in scholarship with 55.3 per cent above "Fair," while equivalent standing was attained by only 36.1 per cent of the mixed group, 33 per cent of the Americans, and 23 per cent of the Italians.

These studies appear to indicate that, all things considered, the Jewish children have the most favorable home conditions, and the Italians the poorest. The American child is second in this respect, and the child of the mixed group third. The Jewish child seems to have the most nourishing food and the greatest variety. Yet the Jewish child does not rank as well as the American or the Italian in the health record, except as to stomachache and headache, and here he stands best. The Jewish children are generally heavier and taller than the Italian of the same age. As might be expected, the Jewish child excels in scholarship, but on account of lack of knowledge of our language is often found below grade. The fact that so many of these children are below grade suggests that there must be some reason other than the difficulty of our language, for among the American children studied, only about 50 per cent are up to normal grade.

The children studied are comparatively few in number and not from the very poorest homes, but they present a view of the situation, and show the need for better conditions, a need every year growing greater as immigration from every land crowds our country. The poorly nourished boys and possibly the girls of today will be the voters of tomorrow. This crying need cannot be neglected.

BEGINNINGS OF THE MODERN DOMESTIC ART MOVEMENT.

C. F. LANGWORTHY.

The Centennial Exposition in Philadelphia, with its exhibits of household furnishings, etc., and its historical collections showing the wearing apparel, decorations, and ornaments of earlier times, was apparently the direct cause of a revival of interest in household decoration, needlework, and other similar household arts. This revival was one of the factors which has been important in firmly establishing

domestic art as a branch of home economics and stimulating the present interest in it.

Not long after the Centennial the Society of Decorative Art of New York was founded with the *Art Interchange* as its organ. Mrs. Candace Wheeler, Mrs. Burton Harrison, and others, through the work of the Society, the columns of this journal, and in other ways, tried to arouse a new interest in house decoration and household industries and to direct the new movement along rational lines.

Mrs. Harrison's articles contributed to the first volume of the *Art Interchange* were later republished with additions to the text and with illustrations, in a volume entitled *Woman's Handiwork* (The Woman's Book, 1894, vol. 2, pp. 217-274). The subjects covered in this volume are decorative art, appropriateness, color, design, invention of subjects, conventional representation, imitative representation, art in the house, couching or laid work, feather-stitch, stem-stitch, drawn work, point and pillow laces, walls, furniture, and china. Other papers included in this edition are: "The Home Grounds," by Samuel Parsons, Jr.; "The Flower Garden," by John N. Gerard; "House Building," by Helen Churchill Candee; "House Decoration and Furnishing," by Mary Gay Humphreys; "Women's Opportunities in Town and Country," by Mary Cadwalader Jones; and "Supplementary Information," by various writers.

The Society of Decorative Art, through its journal, the *Art Interchange*, with its articles and its columns for questions and answers, did much to mold public taste and to popularize the esthetics of house furnishing and decoration.

It would be well worth while for the bibliographer of domestic art to examine the earlier volumes of the *Art Interchange* issued while it was still the organ of the Society of Decorative Art for data regarding the earlier years and growth of the present domestic art movement.

TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL GIRLS FOR TRADE WORK.

MERIEL W. WILLARD.

Not many years ago the college preparatory course was all that seemed needed in a high school for girls. Teaching was a suitable vocation for a girl who had the brains, the time, and the money to carry her through college. To enter college she must have a high school course planned for that particular end. As the entrance requirements for the girls were practically the same as for the boys, the high school studies were in most respects the same. If a girl did not intend to go to college, she must, nevertheless, follow the course marked out. She might shift a few subjects from one year to another, have more or less science, or more or less language work, but in the main little choice was allowed. If the intellectual food did not suit the needs of all the food was not changed. The pupils might readjust their interests or leave school but the course of study was inflexible.

Several years ago, however, began a revolution in the high school ideals. Superintendent Maxwell said recently, "The great end and aim of all public education is to develop useful citizens." The field, too, has widened. Where hundreds of girls formerly went to high school there are now thousands; where only the selected few entered, and to a large extent finished the four years, now all sorts and conditions come, but only about one-half remain for the four years. These girls move like a great army from elementary school to the next step in life preparation—the new high school. The laws are so made that they all must attend, if only for a few weeks, until they have days enough to their credit to secure working papers.

Girls in a city high school represent all types of girlhood—the bright, the dull; the strong, the weak; the pretty, the plain; the girl from the sheltered home of culture and peace, the girl from the crowded tenement who has no help, no quiet, not even a place to keep her school books; the girl who has time and money, and the girl who feels the pressure of want and who has only the shortest possible time to prepare for her vocation.

What can the schools do to meet and supply all these needs? Girls as wage-earners are factors in our city life and are easily induced to leave school. There are far too many unskilled workers in the enervating trades; girls should be kept in school and away from this kind of work. Many families must have the help of the sixteen-year-old girl and she should be prepared for her work, for the cares of life settle upon the young shoulders all too soon. All these girls have a right to their girlhood—they all have a right to the best and happiest three or four years that the schools can give.

Many school systems are trying to solve this problem of modern education. In some cities there are specialized schools of various kinds and the pupils are classified or segregated as they choose which school to attend. Other cities have the composite type, in which may be found all kinds of work. Other cities still have only the conventional academic or classical high schools. New York City has practically all kinds—academic, manual training, commercial and trade, and what is of especial interest just now, the Washington Irving High School, a composite high school for girls. This school attracts all types of girls from all parts of the great city. There are now over 5000 girls on its register. The view-point of these girls is naturally varied. The educational needs are almost as different as the types of the girls. They must either have careful guidance upon entering, or the first choice should be so general that change is easy if a girl slips into the wrong place.

The ideal of the Washington Irving High School is rather unusual, for the intelligent and efficient development of every girl is considered far more important than the attainment of high scholarship marks by the selected few. That teacher is called skillful who brings her entire class up to passing in any given subject, not through neglecting the super normal, but because every pupil is fairly worked with, talked to, helped, above all encouraged. Homes are visited and many a girl has another chance because conditions are understood. It means something for a girl to be early every day if she has to dress little brothers and sisters and take them to school before starting herself. More sympathy is felt for poor work in English if it is known that English is never spoken in the home.

The ability to play as well as the ability to work is one of the habits that this school tries to develop. The capacity for true enjoyment is limited in many girls, and city girls do not know how to play in groups. Pleasures in the city are apt to become passive, for the

average girl prefers going to the theatre to swimming or skating, and the dance halls and the cheap moving picture shows are near at hand. The school that stands for social service must compete with the crude pleasures of the street, and the school that keeps its pupils these days must offer attractions that arouse and interest, attractions that develop the taste for wholesome pleasure, a taste that once acquired is a life long blessing. To this end the girls in the Washington Irving High School dance and sing, they play basket ball and learn to swim, they have clubs and class parties, they dramatize plays and give them to appreciative audiences. Any girl who is a good story-teller or a writer finds her talent strengthened by much practice. Joy, which is a natural heritage to girls in the country town, is unknown in the life of most city school girls. To supply this need and to unify this enormous group of girls, there are every term—sometimes oftener—"Get-together-parties," where the entire school stops its usual work and everyone assists in making the good time. Each group has some share in the big show. It is a wonderful sight to watch 5000 girls, each one a part of a great play or game; the dramatic instinct is strong in the New York girl of today, and a "Vision of Truth" is well worth seeing. At one of these parties, one feels the same fusing of elements that is often felt in small towns when some public demonstration brings everyone in touch with his neighbor, but which is rarely felt in a great city, particularly among girls. This habit of play! Everyone needs to acquire it and to see the bright side of things. Teachers as well as trade workers are often inclined to add up their burdens and utter complaints instead of finding something to be glad about.

The treasures of the city are also made real; and frequent excursions are taken by all departments. Is there a particular exhibit in any gallery, many classes see it. Is there some special work shown in another school or college, interested pupils go, and later discuss and write about it. The regular art galleries and museums are places that over-awe a little girl who has never been north of 14th Street. But frequent visits make it a simple and natural thing to spend a free hour or two seeing world-famous works of art or the wonders of science. The zeal the average adult shows in sightseeing in a foreign city, compared to her lack of interest or knowledge of the beauties of her own city, is a striking illustration of the need of this kind of education.

The developing and training of leaders is another aim of this school. This is noticeable at all gatherings, the pupils conduct everything,

assemblies are like clubs. Parliamentary law will be an easy problem for any Washington Irving High School girl when she is a club officer. This is fine training for industrial leaders, for girls accustomed to command and lead in school will make good workers and dependable directors when they find themselves in the business world. Like any group of society, school girls may be classified as lifters and leaners. The proportion of lifters in this school is fairly high.

The work of the Washington Irving High School is as varied as its social activities. Its ideal is to be truly composite—a complete school; one so well equipped and so elastic in its structure that any girl may by conscious or perhaps unconscious selection find her place—the particular environment that shall help her to grow to be her best self.

When the twelve or fifteen hundred girls, fresh from elementary school, register at the beginning of every term, one wonders where so many girls come from and what they will all be a little later. The first year offers them a choice of a three or a four years' course—the one leading to the technical diploma, the other to the regular high school diploma. In either, the work of the first year is more or less uniform, and at the end of the year it is easy to make a change from one to the other.

Pupils who elect the academic course, as about one-fourth do, have practically chosen their vocation, they usually come to high school with this decision made, and they all wish to be teachers and have before them the regular college preparatory work. The girls in the three years' course do not make their electives until the end of the first year, by this time they have found themselves and know what they want to do. The older girls in the several departments meet and talk to the younger girls about their work. An assembly is given by each department, the work is shown, and the course of study described. Graduates who are working in offices and shops come back and relate their experiences, the wages they receive, the hours they work, etc. The 1B girls hear about art, dressmaking, library training, commercial openings, and they are then quite ready to make their decisions. It is usually found that the commercial group is by far the largest, for New York is a commercial city, and there seems to be an endless number of positions for girls trained in public and private schools. The ease in securing positions and becoming immediate wage earners is a strong factor in the popularity of this department.

The art course attracts many fine girls. They should naturally have some talent in their specialty and they also need to come from homes where the financial pressure is not too great. The road to "art" is long and the young worker is not always paid high wages. The work of this department is varied, and as a girl shows aptitude, she is allowed to specialize in certain lines. Costume illustration is a strong feature, and good positions are secured by the exceptional girls. "General Art" covers a wide field; it requires great power of application and real skill must be attained, for the school standard should be on a par with the trade standard.

To the sewing and dressmaking come a large number of girls. It is a fair statement that some of the best and some of the poorest material in the entire school deliberately choose this department, or drift or drop back into it for one more trial in high school. Every class is a sociological problem, and several nationalities will be found in each group. The Italian girls usually elect sewing; so do many of the Irish and German girls; while almost all the colored girls in the school are found here. From the start about one-half intend to be workers in the dressmaking and allied trades, although a fair proportion take the work because they want it for home use; others because the manual work is easy for them, and a few because the pretty clothes that are made attract them and appeal to their girlish vanity; a curious mixture of motives; but whatever the motive, they are interested and held in school. They develop and change in a remarkable way and a large percentage remains to graduate.

The school, with its many-sided interests and different phases of work, is a true democracy, there is no feeling of caste. Every girl stands or falls through her own personality, never because she belongs to one department or another. Initiative is found as often in a sewing as in a Latin class; a play comes as naturally from an art student as from an academic special. When the graduates come back they bring stories of success from college or shop; and what is perhaps the best proof of appreciation and loyalty, send all their young sisters to receive the same life preparation.

RELATION BETWEEN OCCUPATION AND CRIMINALITY OF WOMEN: A SUMMARY.

MARGUERITE B. LAKE.

The report on the Relation Between Occupation and Criminality of Women,¹ being volume 15 of the Report on Condition of Women and Child Wage Earners in the United States, recently published by the Commissioner of Labor, and prepared by Mary Conyngton, takes up in detail many questions which have been asked repeatedly during the past thirty or forty years. How has the change in modern industrial conditions affected the character of the women entering the business world? Has it increased the amount of criminality among women? What effect has the occupation upon the morals of women? How does the morality of women today compare with that of thirty years ago? In this report Miss Conyngton answers these questions from careful investigations of the records of reformatories, jails, and police courts in six states of the Union which have been greatly affected by the entrance of women into industrial life. Although it is recognized that probably only one-third of the crime committed in any community becomes known and is punished, yet these records show unmistakably the tendency of the various classes toward disregard of the law. "Given persons of approximately the same class, if we find that out of 100 following one pursuit 20 are in jail or prison, while of 100 following another occupation only 5 are under sentence, there is certainly ground for considering that the first pursuit needs looking into."

As regards the education of the 3229 offenders examined, it is interesting to note that the woman of any education was a rarity, that not one college graduate or college student was among the number, only two or three of the entire number had attended a normal school or business college, a small number had been to high school, and a few had received a grammar school education. The majority are untrained and unintelligent. The records of the 3229 offenders were examined in regard to occupation, conjugal condition, literacy, nativ-

¹Report on Condition of Women and Child Wage-Earners in the United States. In 19 Volumes. Volume 15: Relation Between Occupation and Criminality of Women. Prepared under the direction of Chas. P. Neill, Commissioner of Labor, by Mary Conyngton.

ity, and earliest occupation and occupation at time of arrest, so that the report is very full for the states and communities examined. In a table comparing the occupations of the offenders: "It is at once apparent that by far the largest proportion of offenders comes from the group engaged in domestic and personal service, and that the only subdivision under this general head furnishing more than its proportionate share of misdemeanants or criminals is that of servants and waiters." These workers, although they constitute only 24.1 per cent of the breadwinners, furnish 70.3 per cent of the offenders, nearly three times their proper share.

These figures are striking when compared with the proportion of women engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits which "group includes all the mill and factory hands, the garment and flower makers, the workers in fur and feathers, all the overworked and underpaid members of the sweated trades. It contains 24.8 per cent of all female workers over sixteen, or just a trifle more than are engaged as servants and waiters, yet it furnishes but 16.67 per cent of the offenders, against 70.34 per cent from the group of servants and waitresses. That is, with practically the same number in each group, the servants and waitresses furnish more than four times as many offenders as those engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits.

"The women engaged in trade and transportation make an even better showing than their sisters of the factories and the mills. . . . Here, too, is found the largest proportion of young women between sixteen and twenty-four, the age when the character is forming and when a girl might be expected to yield most easily to adverse influences, the crime age, according to some authorities. . . . Yet these workers furnish to the whole group of offenders studied only one-third of their proportionate representation. And this fact becomes the more striking when it is remembered that the investigation was carried on chiefly in industrial centers, where workers of this kind are most numerous and where their temptations are greatest. . . . Telephone and telegraph operators give about one-half of their proportion."

Since this investigation was confined to limited areas where local conditions might easily modify results several cities were studied carefully—Cleveland, O., Rochester, N. Y., and Paterson, N. J.

Of Paterson, N. J., a city of large silk manufactures, an industry peculiarly adapted to women, Miss Conyngton says: "It is to say the least unexpected that in this mill town, where those engaged in domestic

and personal service form only 17.8 per cent of the working female population they should furnish over 60 per cent of this group of offenders, which is considerably over three times their proportion. Among the group of servants and waitresses, the situation is still more marked; although they form practically but one-tenth of the working female population, they furnish about six-tenths of the offenders having gainful occupations. . . . The great disproportion of servants and waitresses does not seem explicable on grounds of nationality or race; nor does the age composition of the two groups afford an explanation of the difference, since among the servants only 44.7 per cent are between sixteen and twenty-four, while among the silk-mill operatives 63.4 per cent are in this age period." The two other cities give about the same figures, those being engaged in domestic service and as waitresses furnishing more than 85 per cent of the offenders.

Massachusetts, as one of the leading manufacturing states, was studied with the same view. Here those engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits furnish about two-thirds of their proportionate number, the textile workers not their full proportion, while dressmakers, milliners, and seamstresses give only about one-seventh of their numerical representation; those in trade and transportation, one-sixth, saleswomen, one-third. "Among those engaged in domestic and personal service, the ratios do not differ widely from those found in the general table. Constituting 32.9 per cent of the women gainfully employed, they furnish 67.2 per cent of the group of offenders, or something over twice their proportionate number. The great majority of these wrongdoers come from the servants and waitresses, who form a trifle over one-fifth of the gainfully employed women, but furnish three-fifths of the misdemeanants and criminals. While nearly 60,000 women employed in the textile mills furnish only 16.4 per cent of these offenders, nearly 70,000 engaged as servants and waitresses give 60.1 per cent. Those engaged in trade and transportation are nearly two-thirds as many as the servants and waitresses, yet they furnish only one-twenty-ninth as many offenders."

* * * *

"The statistics discussed show that by far the greater number of women gainfully employed who had reached the prisons and penitentiaries came there from the pursuits which have for generations been recognized as peculiarly woman's work, and that the newer industries opened to them in the last thirty years furnish very much less than

their proportion. Wherever the occupational distribution of these offenders is studied, whether as an undivided group, in single cities, under varying industrial conditions, or in one of the largest manufacturing states of the Union, the general situation is found to be the same; the wage-earning domestic pursuits give far more, the manufacturing and commercial pursuits far less, than their proportion of offenders. From place to place the proportions vary slightly, but the fact remains unchanged."

And again: "Up to this point it has been found that wherever the facts concerning the occupations of female offenders could be obtained by far the larger number, both absolutely and relatively, have come from the traditional pursuits of womankind. The import of the figures seems unmistakable, and while the number studied is not large it gains in importance from the fact that the localities considered are those in which the newer industries open to women are most prominent. . . . So far as statistics indicate, it may be considered certain that if there has been any proportionate increase in the amount of criminality among women since the opening up of these newer occupations it is not due to the occupations. The prison population is not recruited from the ranks of the saleswomen, the clerks and stenographers, the packers and shippers, and telephone and telegraph operators who have increased so rapidly within the last few decades."

The testimony of officials was also taken in regard to the type of offenders. "At every prison, workhouse, and reformatory where investigations were made, careful inquiry was made for the women in the newer occupations, the saleswomen, the clerks, stenographers and bookkeepers, but the reply invariably was that such women did not come to such places. In a few of the factory towns there was a variation in the reply. 'We get mostly the girls from the unskilled branches of mill or factory work,' would be the answer. 'We have some skilled workers, spinners and weavers, but they are mostly older women who have married and brought up children, and have begun drinking from one cause and another. We don't get the smart workers.' One matron who had had twenty years experience in prison work summed up the situation concisely: 'Wherever I've been we got the low-grade women, the women who did the hardest and poorest paid work in the community. In the last place where I was matron there weren't any factories, and there the women all came from the poorest kind of domestic service. Here there's nothing but factories, so they come from them.' Yet in the next town, also a factory place,

it seemed there was a lower grade possible. A certain probation officer went over his list of women in confinement or on probation, giving his experience with each and his estimate of her character and mentality. They were unskilled workers, employed in certain mills which did not have the best of reputations either for wages paid or for fairness of treatment. 'These women wouldn't be wanted in the better class of mills,' said the officer. 'Probably they couldn't get in at all. They're all dull, some of them drink, and they aren't the kind of women you'd want to hire yourself if you were running any concern. They are doing the poorest grade of work in the whole place, but they are hardly capable of doing anything better.'

Domestic service seems to be the occupation open to the lowest grade of workers, those who could not possibly secure or retain a place in any well-organized industry. The servant who is found in jail is not usually the trained domestic worker but an unskilled worker of the poorest type. These servants also do not come from the homes of the better class. "They are apt to work for people whose standards are but little higher than their own. Their work is often carried on under unhygienic conditions, their hours are long and irregular, and their mistresses frequently 'awful nagging.' They can not do their work well enough to take any intelligent interest in it and the day becomes a lonesome and monotonous round of drudgery. They have no prospect of rising to anything higher, so that the spur of ambition does not drive them forward in the right way and there is no social standard of their own class to hold them back from the wrong.

"Apart from these general disadvantages, domestic service has one or two special drawbacks tending to increase its contributions to the ranks of lawbreakers. The temptation to theft is constant and the danger of discovery less than in most other forms of industry. . . . Domestic service also makes a very bad showing with respect to offenses against chastity, but this again is partly due to the fact that women can secure employment in it when they are of too low grade to be employed elsewhere. Nevertheless the number of better-class servants who had erred in this way makes it seem certain that there are some special temptations in this direction inherent in the occupation. Such temptations are not far to seek. The loneliness of the life leads a girl to seek company in her hours of freedom, and too often this company must be found and entertained on the streets. If the men of her employer's family have any desire to mislead her,

her position makes it peculiarly easy to do so, while if the girl herself happens to be one of the moral imbeciles before discussed her position likewise gives her peculiar opportunities for spreading moral contagion. The isolation of the girl deprives her of the protection other workers find in the publicity of their lives, and the lack of social standing which seems at present inseparable from her occupation takes away a powerful incentive to right living.

"In the case of intemperance, and its allied offense, disorderly conduct, it seems probable that the large proportion from domestic service is due mainly to the grade of workers, rather than to temptations inherent in the occupation."

In conclusion, in regard to the relation of occupation to criminality, the statistical study revealed that of the more than 3000 women offenders examined 80 per cent came from their own homes or from the traditional pursuits of women, and a little less than 12 per cent from all other lawful occupations. That is, those engaged in domestic and personal service furnished more than twice their proportionate number, while those engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits gave less than two-thirds their share, and those in trade and transportation one-third of their proportionate representation. Apparently the newer occupations have a steadying influence in themselves, or they do not attract the class of women most likely to offend against the law. Therefore it seems that the majority of offenders do not come from domestic and personal service because these occupations are ones that lead women into conflict with the laws, but because they are the principal occupations open to the kind of women likely to come into conflict with the law, and also because these occupations have in themselves few restraining influences for such women.

* * * *

In reply to the question as to the increase of criminality among women the evidence pointed markedly to the fact that not only is criminality not increasing among women but that it is absolutely decreasing. "Moreover, the officials are also agreed that during the last thirty years, the period within which these fields have been opened up to women, and in which the great increase in women wage-earners has been along these newer lines, there has been no increase of female criminality which could be traced directly or indirectly to their entrance upon these occupations. The verdict of experience confirms the showing of the prison records, that the great mass of women offenders come from the pursuits in which women have long been

engaged. The 'widening of their sphere' of industrial activity can not be held responsible for any marked proportionate increase of criminality among women."

"Now it is the general opinion among prison workers that the number of female offenders is diminishing. . . . In one factory town where a decade ago a new house of correction with a large wing for women was built the number of female offenders has so diminished that it is not considered worth while to maintain a matron, and the women under sentence are boarded at the house of correction of a neighboring community."

"No one contends that the standard of enforcement of law has been lowered in Massachusetts during the last dozen years; consequently there seems no escape from the conclusion that while the number of women gainfully employed has been increasing everywhere, in that state at least, the relative number of female offenders has diminished."

* * * *

An investigation was also made into the relation of occupation to immorality, and 100 women who had made a financial success of immorality were examined. In conclusion occupational influences seem to be almost nil. In 16 cases a connection could be traced, but in all but 5 the relation was merely incidental not causal. Want also seems to have played a very small part in leading women astray, but serves to keep them in the wrong path when once the start has been made. The number of cases examined was small so that the results must be used with caution, but they seem to confirm the conclusions: That there is little connection between occupation and immorality, or want and immorality; that a considerable number of those having any occupation came from the ranks of waitresses, whose occupation has often been cited as offering unusual temptations; that this preponderance is due to the attraction which these very temptations possess for some of those yielding to them; that these women, the more intelligent class of female wrongdoers, go wrong because of causes operative long before they enter the industrial world.

The lessons to be drawn from this report are obvious, however they may conflict with our preconceived ideas of housework as a business. Its loneliness, its lack of regular hours and freedom for evenings and Sundays, the fact that there is little chance for promotion and no class-feeling or standards to live up to, are all against it as it is at present conducted.

TEXTILE LABELING LAW.

Hon. Victor Murdock, Representative from Kansas, introduced in the sixty-second Congress a bill "providing for the labeling and tagging of all fabrics and articles of clothing intended for sale which enter into interstate commerce, and providing penalties for misbranding." The bill would make unlawful the manufacture in any territory or the District of Columbia, of "misbranded fabrics or articles of clothing of wool, cotton, silk, hair, or fiber, in whole or part." Further, the bill protects every state and territory from the shipment of misbranded fabrics and articles of clothing into the state or territory, whether from abroad or from some other state or territory. The bill adopts as standards "pure wool," to mean sheep's wool not previously used in the manufacture of any other article; "woolen goods" to mean goods or fabrics composed wholly of such wool; and "mixed goods" to mean goods and fabrics not composed wholly of pure wool, or wholly of cotton, linen, and silk respectively. Fabrics and articles of clothing must be marked, tagged, or labeled in plain letters, and the mark, tag, or label, shall show the proportion of each of the constituent fibers or other materials or substances of which such goods are composed; all fabrics and articles which are composed wholly of cotton must be labeled "cotton," etc. A misstatement of the percentage is deemed a misbranding. No dealer shall be prosecuted when he can establish a guarantee signed by the wholesaler, jobber, or manufacturer. Misbranded articles may be seized in transportation and the samples of imported fabrics and articles shall be examined from time to time. Articles not manufactured for sale do not require labeling, nor do articles which are not shipped from state to state or imported. Linens or trimmings for garments do not require separate labeling. Fabrics or clothing which has been once used do not require labeling.

The proposed law places the administration of the act with the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of Agriculture, and the Secretary of Commerce.

This bill has the limitation of all federal legislation with regard to commerce in that it can reach only goods passing from one state to another. It leaves the whole field of manufacture of goods within the states for local consumption to be considered by separate state legislation. It proposes the beginning in an important field of legislation. Copies of the bill can be secured from Mr. Murdock.

THE VOCATIONAL AND CULTURAL VALUE OF DOMESTIC SCIENCE.¹

MARION TALBOT.

*Professor of Household Administration and Dean of Women of
the University of Chicago.*

In the United States there is a strong movement in favor of what is called vocational education. Many people assert that present educational methods are not sufficiently directed toward the future needs of children and young people and that there must be a radical change of methods if the future workers of the world are to be effective producers. On the other hand it is as stoutly maintained that making a child immediately productive is not the whole object of an educational system, that life means for most people and should mean for all people more than mere physical existence, that there are moral, intellectual, social, and spiritual qualities to be trained and made useful, and that consequently the vocational idea must be made more broadly inclusive than some of its advocates have the vision to see is necessary.

In this situation the teacher of domestic science has a great opportunity and a real privilege, for it is within her power to realize both aims of education and to develop efficiency in the physical activities of living and to train in ideals of character as well as in power to contribute to the larger social well-being of the community. Indeed a teacher who is not only proficient in the technical aspects of her subject, but realizes the larger implications it contains, is in a position to make an exceptionally great contribution towards the solution of the problem. A brief survey will show what the domestic science teacher should consciously have in mind as results to be attained.

(1) In all forms of education the acquirement of information is naturally one of the first ends. It is doubtful if any one line of training affords an opportunity for a wider range of knowledge than does domestic science. Useful facts and theories in every field may be drawn upon to serve as subject matter. Chemistry, physics, botany, physiology, bacteriology, languages, history, economics, civics, psychology, all may serve as sources of knowledge which come to full

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value when they find expression in the development of human life. The experience of the domestic science teacher need be very brief to show her that every department of knowledge may contribute to the realization of her ends. As has been said by Mrs. E. H. Richards, "domestic science is the keystone in the arch of all the sciences."

(2) Whatever path the child may follow in the future there will be need of giving the mind power of control over the body. Domestic science furnishes an admirable means of securing manual dexterity, if skill in manipulation is consciously kept in mind and the acts of brain and hands are properly coördinated.

(3) Most children need to be trained in habits of order and system. The careful and thrifty use of appliances and materials, the planning of resources, economy in taking steps, may well be shown in teaching household operations. Such systematic and orderly habits will prove of great value later in life when the day's work threatens to overwhelm with its complexity.

(4) Neatness and cleanliness, or, in other words, training in hygiene, are matters which the domestic science teacher should have in mind. Children may well be taught not to handle food materials unless they are neat in their persons and clean in their personal habits. In this way tendencies may be started which will prove of great value in later life. There are also many opportunities for teaching the principles of sanitation, as for example, securing proper ventilation, the right use of plumbing and effective methods of cleaning dishes and utensils, as well as of caring for food so that it will not undergo unwholesome changes or be subject to infection from insects.

(5) Domestic science should serve as a means of developing the sense of beauty and fitness. The crude tastes of the child may be carefully directed through the agency of different household activities. Elaboration of food, clothing and household furnishings may easily be shown to be in poor taste, while true standards of beauty may be slowly revealed to the child through its growing opportunities to make aesthetic judgments and to combine the useful and the beautiful.

(6) One purpose of education should certainly be to strengthen the power of observation. Domestic science deals primarily with facts and processes which are an intimate part of the child's experience, so intimate in fact that they are often passed unobserved. Using them as a starting point a skillful teacher may accomplish a great deal in awakening the child's power to observe what is going on about him and to seek the reasons for what he observes. He will then gain

in power to control his environment as well as to experience that joy in thinking which leads to the still greater joy of doing with intelligence and efficiency.

(7) Throughout all the training the significance of expending time, money, and strength may be constantly pointed out or learned from well-directed efforts. There are unnumbered chances to impress upon the child the importance of using human life for the best and worthiest ends, acting with and for others.

In brief, training in domestic science should be informational, physical, disciplinary, hygienic, aesthetic, observational, ethical, and socializing, or, in still briefer terms, it should be awakening and cultural as well as vocational.

The object of training for household management may be otherwise expressed. The education of every girl should secure her best development as a human being with individual powers and aspirations, as a good citizen prepared to do her part in promoting the common weal, and as a trained worker competent to perform such service as will justify her existence as a member of the social group in which she is placed.

Domestic science should keep all these ends in view in training the child. Vocational education will make several demands. The service which the girl will render in the future must be professional, not casual, in its nature. In other words, it must be of value. As housekeeper or manager, she may be paid in money; as housewife or philanthropist, her work must be worthy of payment. She must be expert or able to control, rather than be controlled. She must know how to grapple with problems and deal effectively with unexpected situations. In other words she must have executive ability directed by intelligence and knowledge.

She must be familiar with the materials which are under her direction, such as shelter, food, clothing, and furnishings, as well as with the principles of sanitation, dietetics and buying. A knowledge of aesthetic principles, of art and design and color, will add to her efficiency.

Whether married or single, she is likely to have the oversight of children or to be more or less responsible for them. Here physiology, child hygiene, psychology, and the principles of education are greatly needed. Whether she is a householder or not, she needs to have the elementary principles of civics and law at her command and also be familiar with simpler transactions in business and money matters.

It is interesting for one who is working with young students to

notice how the so-called drudgery of the home takes on a new aspect when the activities of the home are shown to be far-reaching in their effects and demanding a high order of ability and training if they are to be worthily performed. A cook was about to leave her situation in a clergyman's family to attempt to become a dressmaker. Her employer said to her "Don't you realize how important what you do is? My husband is engaged in all these difficult matters that come up in the church and the city, work people call upon him to help settle strikes, he organizes aid for the needy, and other good works, and when he comes home tired and worn out you have good food ready for his refreshment and thus help enable him to carry on his work." This was a new view to the cook and forthwith she gave up all idea that her tasks were menial and insignificant.

Many a young woman today is fretted by the prospect of a meaningless round of dishwashing, cooking and sewing, but she would eagerly carry on these meaningless measures if somebody would show her how they may be interpreted as necessary steps in expressing the highest social instincts and meeting the most important human needs. As the old English poet, George Herbert, well says:

A servant with this clause
Makes drudgery divine;
Who sweeps a room as for Thy laws
Makes that and th' action fine.

Domestic science has suffered too long from confining itself to the mechanical operations of cooking and sewing. Young people have instinctively known that these are belated industries and have chafed against retaining them in the home by force of tradition against all the modern influences which are driving them out. The process for the sake of the process does not allure the young person and yet too often it is all that the domestic science teacher has in view or can offer.

The suggestions which have been made in this paper may seem too remote and idealistic for realization in the near future. Undoubtedly they are for those teachers of domestic science who exaggerate the importance of cooking and sewing as arts and who lack the training and insight to realize that in themselves these household arts are of little educational or social value. Moreover, placing a false estimate upon their importance results in obscuring their true relation to the real values of life. It is only when the cultural and vocational value of domestic science and all its implications can be appreciated and interpreted will this important branch of study fulfil its proper mission.

Finally it is apparent that such a view of the scope of domestic science implies a much broader and more thorough training than most teachers at present receive. There is a growing conviction of the need of a thorough and broad knowledge of the different so-called natural sciences. It has not yet been adequately recognized that the social sciences have a large part to play in the proper equipment of a teacher who is to direct the young for life in its fullest sense. Standards are advancing rapidly, opportunities are likewise increasing, and such conferences as this will aid in giving dignity and the seal of approval to a vocation which will not fail to reach out and help even the lowliest when its function is recognized to be one of interpreting the values of life.

CLASS WORK IN THE GIRLS' FRIENDLY SOCIETY.

EDITH M. HADLEY.

Secretary Social Service Department, Girls' Friendly Society.

A little over forty years ago, in the Diocese of Winchester, England, the Bishop, Samuel Wilberforce, was organizing a society for rescue work. In the audience was a young woman who had recently gone to live in a Hampshire parish. While listening the thought flashed through her mind, "If the power of rescue work will be so increased by organization, why should not work be organized to save from falling?" This was the inception of the Girls' Friendly Society. Its birth might have been seen shortly after in a tiny cottage on a wild heath, where a little group of girls and women gathered together from the country side, the girls sewing and a lady reading aloud to them. From this small beginning has grown, under the auspices of the Church of England, the largest preventive organization for women and girls in the world. Its branches from the mother tree have spread throughout the English colonies, and in the United States stretch from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast, and from Canada to Key West. The last report gave the number of girls and women belonging to this Society in the United States as 43,200.

The object of this Society is to maintain purity, to upbuild character, to help one another, secularly and spiritually, if the two terms can be differentiated. The organization follows the lines of the Church, being diocesan and parochial, the unit being the group of

girls, with their "associate," an older woman, forming a class. In many instances the combination of these class groups forms the "branch" or parochial entity. While the object of all those belonging to this Society is the same, the methods of attaining it are individual, and may be original and independent, although in the majority of cases the method is class work.

In this country, in the autumn of 1912, through the Social Service Department, twenty-one dioceses reported class work bearing upon home economics. This does not mean that there were only twenty-one classes, for the diocese of New York alone reported ninety-six classes in fifty branches. The following enumeration taken from the total report shows the average type of class and lecture work: Cooking, crochet, drawn work, dressmaking, embroidery, first aid, kitchen gardening, knitting, linen lace, millinery, nursing, physical culture, sewing, and shirtwaist making. Lectures were also given on "The Care of Little Babies," "Hygiene," "Sex Hygiene," "Income and Expenditure," "Food and Cooking for Health and Economy," and an address was given to associates on "The Making of the Home," by Miss Kinne, Professor of Household Arts in Teachers' College, New York. In addition, Connecticut added rag rug-making and arts and crafts; Maryland and southern Ohio domestic science; Massachusetts lectures on "Contagious Diseases," "Household Economics," "Markets and Flies," and "Table Service;" and Michigan gave a lecture on "Montessori Education." In every diocese one is almost certain to find classes in kitchen gardening for the children, or "candidates," and sewing, cooking and dressmaking among the older girls; while first aid, nursing, hygiene, moral hygiene, and dancing are growing in popularity. When it is considered that about 25,000 members attending meetings of the Girls' Friendly Society in the United States are girls who work in dressmaking and millinery establishments, factories, shops and offices, the majority of whom have been at work from the age of fourteen and have no other preparation for marriage and home life than is given in these groups, the value and opportunity may be estimated.

The average class meets once a week for about seven months, and though it may seem that very little can be gained in the all too short hour or hour and a half allotted, yet the work accomplished by the girls is remarkable. A young dressmaking girl, who is rather dull and slow, started to work in an embroidery class four or five years ago, apparently without any aptitude for embroidery, and with no

taste for color combination. Her first efforts were discouraging, and even at the end of the first year's course, her teacher almost despaired. But both persevered, and at present she is working upon the finest and most exquisite ecclesiastical embroidery. Her experience is similar to that of hundreds of other girls. Two or three years of training are sufficient to make the average girl an expert in the line of work she has undertaken. Many branches at the end of the season have exhibits of work which has been done during the year. Hats perched upon milk bottles, and coats, skirts, dresses and shirtwaists upon forms, attract the most attention, but the fine needlework and drawn work repay inspection, and frequently assist girls in obtaining orders, or in finding more remunerative positions as wage earners.

A specific example of the manner in which the classes work may be given in describing St. George's Branch, New York, where classes are conducted Tuesday afternoons for the children, or "candidates," as they are called, on Friday evenings for juniors, or girls from fourteen to sixteen years of age, and on Tuesday and Friday evenings for seniors, from sixteen to twenty-one on one of these evenings, and from twenty-one years up, on the other. The hours are from 8.00 until 9.30, and the instruction is given to the juniors by volunteer workers, usually members of the Society; the seniors are taught by paid expert teachers. The courses include cooking, embroidery, drawn work, calisthenics, fancy dancing, millinery, dressmaking and home nursing. In most of the classes the girls are seated at long tables, and the teachers go from one to another, giving instruction. A lady, or "associate" is in charge of each class, and her opportunity for helping or influencing the girls, and of receiving help or influence from them, is only limited by personality. She may read aloud to them, or discuss whatever she or the girls may wish, literature, travel, social conditions, civics, politics, religion, morals,—but often it will be, not a group discussion, but a personal problem of one of the girl's that is brought to the associate.

While the class work is considered of great value, even in branches which are unable to afford expert instruction, inculcating as it does habits of neatness, cleanliness, intelligence and efficiency, the motive underlying the instruction is never lost sight of,—character building, the strengthening to resist temptation, the banding together for helpfulness.

HOME ECONOMICS WORK IN THE UNITED STATES FOR MEN AND BOYS.¹

C. F. LANGWORTHY.

Nutrition Investigations, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

We are accustomed to speak of courses of instruction as women's subjects or men's subjects, according to the interest they arouse, and usually think of home economics as belonging to the former group. In most cases analysis shows that the subject-matter taught has to do with matters common to the interests of both men and women, plus a larger or a smaller portion particularly interesting to each. To cite an illustration, the subject of physics is without doubt more interesting to men than to women students, yet a considerable part of its subject-matter has to do with phenomena as important to one as to the other. Though a great deal which is included pertains particularly to men's occupations and activities, there is a considerable portion which directly pertains to women's interests, a matter which in this as in other subjects is not so often emphasized as it should be in arranging courses.

What has been said is equally true of home economics. Though at first thought it might appear that the subject is concerned exclusively with women's activities, it should be apparent to all that a large proportion of the subject-matter which would be included in the ideal course is of equal interest to both men and women—for instance, ventilation, heating and lighting, the selection of clothing, the hygiene of right living, and a knowledge of the relative value and use of foods—while a portion, its extent not yet formulated, has to do particularly with men's activities as related to the general question of food, clothing, and shelter. The ideal course of instruction will recognize these facts and be arranged accordingly.

These things being so, it is natural that we should find, as is the case, that instruction in what may be called home economics is given to men in a variety of ways and under a variety of names, and very

¹ Reprinted from the proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting of the American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. 1912.

seldom under the name "home economics." Most of this instruction is from the portion of the field which concerns the activities of both men and women. Where such work takes special form it is usually concerned with instruction in some trade, as baking and catering, or as a help in some other undertaking, as courses in camp cookery, which are useful to men engaged in many occupations. Most common of all is the general instruction given in personal hygiene, hygiene of the home, and related topics.

Much work not formally grouped under home economics but under some other title is available for boys in schools and for men students in colleges. For instance, instruction is very commonly given in matters pertaining to personal hygiene, including the importance of pure air and ventilation, personal cleanliness, and hygiene of clothing, and general data regarding foods, though possibly the last-mentioned topic is not so often included. In some colleges courses in food analysis, including the detection of adulteration, are offered as well as opportunities for special work. Thus, Columbia University, New York City, offers such courses in its academic department. Teachers' College of Columbia University, New York, offers laboratory work in food and nutrition, in textiles, including the detection of adulteration, and in other lines, and these courses, like others in the college, are not restricted to women students, though in most cases the classes are made up exclusively of women.

In medical schools instruction is given in ventilation, personal hygiene, hygiene of dwellings and environment, and other topics more or less concerned with the subjects usually grouped under home economics. Furthermore, it is very noticeable that an increasing amount of attention is paid to food and dietetics, and that such work includes not only lectures and practice in the analysis of foods with a view to determining their composition and purity, but also some instruction in the preparation of foods, naturally with special reference to invalid dietetics. Before provision was so generally made in medical schools for instruction in invalid cookery students who felt the need of the work secured it in other ways. Thus, Miss Maria Parloa, who established a school of cookery in Boston about 1880, gave instruction in sick room cookery to Harvard medical students, and later some of the medical students from the Massachusetts General Hospital sought similar instruction from Miss Farmer.

Problems dealing with the purchase of food and other household supplies, and much that pertains to commercial transactions are in-

cluded in most school courses in arithmetic, and we must not overlook the fact that all of this has a legitimate part in an ideal classification of home economics material, and would necessarily have a special place in home economics courses if it were not provided for elsewhere. Doubtless because the topics appeal to them boys very commonly gain a better knowledge of business forms and transactions than girls, particularly in matters which pertain to the purchase and transference of property, and related questions; and in the case of advanced work which would include property rights, the legal status of different members of the family, and other questions, the advantage is with the men students as regards opportunity for formal instruction in colleges and professional schools and informal training outside of them. The need for similar training of suitable scope for women students is recognized and finds its place in an ideal classification of the subject-matter of home economics.

So far as can be learned, no college in the United States offers anything like a complete course in home economics designed primarily for men students, either technical in its scope or professional. The agricultural colleges in most cases are co-educational and a considerable number of them offer courses in home economics. It follows, therefore, that in such colleges men students can readily avail themselves of opportunities for home economics work should they desire to do so. Furthermore, in some of these colleges special courses in some line of home economics are offered for men students.

To cite the instances which have been noted: The University of Minnesota in the high school at the Agricultural College began about ten years ago to teach cookery to the boys. The work extends over three months, but as a whole the time devoted to the subject is rather short, only twenty-four to thirty-six hours a year. The course is very popular. It includes the selection of food with a view to securing a balanced ration, necessity for cleanliness in preparation, and methods of cookery, especially camp cookery. Presumably, the work will be extended. A class in camp cookery has been established for university students, and this too is well attended.

The State Agricultural College at Fort Collins, Colorado, has a course in camp cookery, attended mostly by engineers who expect to make practical use of their knowledge of this subject.

In Idaho, both the State Normal School at Lewiston and the State University at Moscow give courses in cooking to boys, as does the home economics department of the State College of Washington. A

course in camp cookery is given by the University of Maine for the special benefit of such students as expect to engage in forestry work. Instruction in camp cookery is also given in certain elementary and high schools in Massachusetts to boy scouts but no details have been secured of its character and extent.

Although home economics subjects are not at present taught to young men at the School of Education of the University of Chicago, a few years ago instruction of this kind to the high school boys proved very successful. Boys in the elementary school of this institution also were taught many of the household arts, not only for the intrinsic value of a knowledge of such subjects, but also for the practical training in correlated subjects. For instance, it was found that in measuring out the ingredients required for the preparation of a soup or a pudding, the boys (and girls) learned, incidentally, denominate numbers, fractions, and proportion, not only as well as in the usual way from the text-book, but with greater facility. In preparing and cooking a meal boys as well as girls learned something of chemistry. The idea on which the work of the school was based is that the process of learning is of far greater value than that which is learned.

Several requests have been received from men who wish to become stewards for hotels and restaurants by the Kansas State Agricultural College for instruction in home economics subjects, although no such courses are now offered. A demand for instruction in table etiquette led to the establishment of a novel method of imparting such instruction. At each of five noonday meals per week three of the young men sat at table with a teacher and each of the four took his turn in carving and serving. No verbal instructions or corrections were given, but the pupils were expected to learn by following the example of the teacher. Whether or not this plan will be adopted again has not been learned.

Men sometimes take courses in household arts at Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York. One who recently took a course in food economics and household economics is about to institute a department of household economics in an educational institution in Philadelphia. Several medical students also have taken courses in practical cookery in Teachers' College.

While none of the public schools of Oregon offers special instruction in home economics to boys, several of the high schools admit them to the cooking classes and in some cases they have taken advantage of this opportunity.

In the state of Utah practically all of the public school boys receive some instruction in home economics. The Agricultural College at Logan, Utah, has a course in home economics to which men are admitted. The men now taking the course expect to become stewards or to take up homesteads where they will be compelled to prepare their own meals.

At the United States Military Academy at West Point much is taught which pertains to home economics, though it goes without saying that this kind of instruction has been provided with no reference to the home economics movement. Rooms must be swept, bedding folded, and everything in perfect order at 6.30 a.m. Bedding and clothes must be folded according to rule and placed just in their right places. Both person and clothes must be immaculate at all times. Quarters are subject to frequent and critical inspection. Of necessity the cadets are instructed in the proper performance of these tasks and it is recognized that the training has a value in forming orderly habits as well as in securing orderly quarters. As stated in the Regulations for the United States Military Academy, 1911, page 89, "The rooms in cadet barracks shall be arranged as prescribed by the commandant of cadets and regulations for the same shall be posted in each. The rooms shall be in order whenever the occupants are absent."

At the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis instruction is given the undergraduates in the care of their quarters. The rules for the care and arrangement of the rooms are minutely detailed and penalties prescribed in the regulations of the Academy for the least violation. The care of a ship in all its details is part of the instruction the midshipmen receive on the training ship, and practical work in "ship housekeeping," if one may so designate it, involves cleanliness and order and much that can be called home economics, though this grouping is without doubt far from the minds of those who give and those who receive the instruction.

Inspired doubtless by the courses at West Point and Annapolis, many of the private military schools give their students instruction indirectly, in what is really home economics, as the care of rooms, equipment, and person.

The plan of organization and course of instruction for the "Boy Scouts of America" provide for a certain amount of teaching of home economics subjects. In pioneer days boys received much training in the various home activities, assisting in the duties of the farm and

the farm home and thereby obtaining a practical knowledge and mental training which comes from the handling of tools and the doing of work as well as a physical development which is commonly sought by the boys of the present day in athletics or other ways. Specialization in industries and the growth of cities have so restricted boys' opportunities for acquiring the varied training which comes from the performance of such tasks that the value of a movement which aims to supply the deficiency seems evident. The organization is thoroughly described in the official handbook by Ernest Thompson Seton.² There is no intention of quoting here any of the details of the organization except such as have a direct bearing on home economics. The boys are taught in instructions for camping what equipment should be provided, the kinds and quantities of provisions needed for a definite period, the selection of a camp site, the construction of beds, use of lights, importance and ways of obtaining a good water supply, construction and maintenance of fires, and camp cookery. Among the other activities taught the boy scouts which might properly be considered as having a more or less direct relation to home economics are first aid to the injured, building a log cabin, making a tent, and tying knots.

Philanthropic societies in some instances give instructions to boys as well as girls in cookery and in plain sewing, such as would be of use at the summer camps maintained by these societies. The Young Men's Christian Association in several cities gives similar instruction in its boys' clubs for the benefit of those boys who have an outing in camp.

Another movement which should be mentioned here is the establishment of the George Junior Republic. This is a self-governing community of boys and girls at Freeville, New York. The young citizens work at various occupations, receiving pay in the aluminum coin of the Republic, which they spend as they please in providing for themselves food, clothing, shelter, and amusements. On leaving, all money of the Republic possessed by the citizen is redeemed in United States currency. This system provides valuable training in household economics, even if the term is not used in connection with the work. Among the industries of the Republic is a bakery in which the young citizens bake not only all the bread and pastry used by the Republic, but also a product called "Republic Ginger and Chocolate Wafers" for the market. There is also a thoroughly equipped steam laundry, a store, carpenter shop, blacksmith shop, print shop,

² Boys Scouts of America. New York, 1910.

barns, butcher shop, dairy, and various farm buildings. It is obvious that the knowledge of home and farm activities gained by "doing" is varied and extensive.

In some industrial schools the care of the rooms is part of the student's work and of necessity instruction is given in the proper methods.

At the New York Parental School at Flushing the boys receive instruction in baking, laundering, and tailoring, as well as in carpentering, plumbing, printing, and farming. Each of these activities is followed commercially. For instance, all the laundering and baking for the Brooklyn and Manhattan Truant Schools, the laundering for the New York Board of Education Building and the Girls' Technical School, and the laundering of the hammocks of the New York Schoolship is done by the boys in the Parental School, the combined value of the products of laundering and baking for the year 1911 being over \$18,000.

The cottage system is in vogue at the Parental School and the boys learn to do housework and do all of it in their respective cottages. They also receive considerable instruction in table manners (*i.e.*, the use of napkins, knives, forks, spoons, etc.), and in the proper handling of their food.

Many of the vocational schools throughout the country give instruction in home economics subjects, but it is difficult to draw the line between such instruction and the teaching of certain trades, as for example cooking, baking, and tailoring. It is also difficult to draw a sharp line between home economics subjects and the kind of instruction given to men and boys in relation to personal hygiene, etc., at various factory welfare institutions.

There are in the United States trade schools for bakers and for men cooks, as there are indeed for a great variety of occupations, the object being primarily the acquisition of skill in manipulation as a means of earning a living. No attempt has been made to collect information regarding such schools, though it would be interesting to do so. Such schools are nearly always private enterprises. There are, however, three similar schools maintained by the army, and one by the navy.

The United States army has at Fort Riley, Kansas, at Washington Barracks, Washington, D. C., and at the Presidio, San Francisco, California, schools for the training of bakers and cooks for the army. The curriculum is practically the same at all of these schools, so a description of the one at Fort Riley will suffice to make clear the aims and methods of all three.

The course of study for student bakers at the Mounted Service School, Fort Riley, usually covers a period of four months, although, in certain cases this time may be extended or curtailed one month. Students are selected from the enlisted men at the different army establishments by their commanding officers with a view to fitness and willingness to take up the work.

For a few weeks after arrival each new man works with a member of the graduating class. Among the duties to which the men are assigned are the making of straight doughs, sponges, yeasts, and ferments. They learn to operate bread-making machines, to build and maintain fires, and to use ovens and pans. Various field expedients, including the handling of field ovens, are taught, as well as the duties of sales clerk and supervision of the bread room and of the mixing room. The practical work also includes the making of white, rye, and graham bread, rolls, buns, and doughnuts. Each student has entire charge of the regimental field bakery for four days of each month and is marked and graded on the quality of the product on those days. Each member of the graduating class takes charge of the bakery for three successive days as chief baker, during which time he controls all help, makes out all reports, and keeps all accounts required of a chief baker.

In addition to the practical work, a study of the official text-book, the *Army Baker*, is required, and five hours per week are spent in the study of such arithmetic as is of use in handling bakers' accounts, unless the student shows on examination that he already knows enough arithmetic.

While not specifically mentioned as part of the curriculum, the care of the person and all clothing, utensils, and equipment used by the student is no small part of the training received by the students.

Upon completion of the course the students are rated according to ability as chief bakers, assistant bakers, and non-graduates, a total of 450 points being required for graduation out of a possible 600, made up as follows: 200 points for practical work in the post bakery, 100 points for practical work in the field bakery, 50 points for cleanliness and work as mixing room orderly, 100 points for recitations, and 150 points for examination.

The course of study for student cooks at the same school, as in the case of the student bakers, requires from three to five months, usually four, and the students are selected in the same way. New arrivals are at first assigned as assistants to first and second cooks at the several organization kitchens. They assist in the preparation

of meals and in the cleaning of kitchen utensils and equipment. After about a month these students are promoted to the grade of second cook and after two months to that of first cook. First and second cooks alternate in the preparation of meals, the one not on duty as cook attending afternoon recitation and fresh beef inspection the following morning. Field expedients are used in the preparation of one meal each week. One week's instruction is given in baking pies, sweet doughs and cakes in the field pastry kitchens. In the last month of the course students act as mess sergeants and are required in that capacity to demonstrate ability to provide good meals on the ration allowance.

Theoretical work includes a study of the official text-book and the school regulations. The theory and practice of cooking are taught for two months, and dressed beef inspection and cutting the beef carcass are taught for two months. Instruction in arithmetic is principally in the handling of accounts and the determination of the cost of rations. Graduates are rated according to ability as mess sergeants, first cooks, and second cooks.

The men taking both the courses are required to keep their quarters and equipment in order and are taught how to do this if they do not know already.

That the activities of the army training schools for bakers and cooks are not limited strictly to the army is shown by the statement in a recent report³ of the commissary general, which notes that during the year 1911 the commandant of the United States Marine Corps made application for authority to have enlisted men of the Marine Corps take a course in the schools at Washington Barracks and the Presidio of San Francisco, which request was granted, as was also a similar request from the State of Ohio for permission to allow enlisted men of the national guard of that state to enter the training school for bakers and cooks at Washington Barracks.

A school at the United States Naval Training Station, Newport, Rhode Island, similar in scope to the army school, trains cooks and bakers for the navy. According to data received from the school the average number of students in attendance varies from sixty to seventy, divided into four classes—commissary stewards, head cooks, cooks of lower rating, and bakers. For commissary stewards the course covers six months; for all others four months.

In the class for lower cooks men are received who have just enlisted in the navy and whose knowledge of cooking, particularly of navy

³ Report of Commissary General (U. S. Army). 1911, p. 7.

methods, is very slight. There are also a few men in this class who have enlisted in other ratings and after having seen a little of navy life have decided that they would prefer to become members of the commissary department. The men are taught the principles of cooking and the customs, rules, and regulations in vogue aboard ships of the navy.

The head cooks' class is composed of men who have had several years' service as cooks in the navy or who have qualified in the lower cooks' class and shown themselves competent to take charge of a ship's galley. The men are supposed to be proficient cooks before they enter this class, and the instruction given them is principally along the lines of organization of the galley force, proper supervision of the men under them, cleanliness and neatness in the preparation of food, and care of galley and of person.

The commissary steward class is composed of men who have become experienced navy cooks or who have had experience as stewards in restaurants or in hotels. They are taught the principles of the navy ration, the organization of the force under them, and all other matters pertaining to the general mess aboard ship, over which they have direct charge.

The bakers' class is composed of men who in civil life have had experience as bakers or of navy cooks who have shown an aptitude for baking and a liking for it in preference to general cooking. Baking in its various branches is thoroughly taught, as are also the custom and routine aboard ship.

In addition to instruction in the preparation of food both on shore and at sea, the students receive incidentally much teaching of cleanliness and order as applied to their persons, and to all equipment and utensils used by them.

In such a summary one must not omit to mention the fact that many boys receive at home from their mothers instruction in many things pertaining to housekeeping and the care of the home, and gain a knowledge as useful as many a school could impart, which proves of great value to them in after life.

Further search will show that there are many other instances of the teaching of home economics subjects to men students and to boys. What has been brought together will, it is believed, serve to show that the work, though scattered and often incidental, is nevertheless fairly considerable in amount. It is also apparent that there is need for extending it if education is to provide all that it might in training for life and its opportunities.

LUNCHES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

All the arguments that have won the fight for providing wholesome, well-planned meals served at cost to high school children apply equally to similar provision for elementary school children. Opportunities for education and habit formation are greater with the younger children, because they are younger, and because there are many more of them.

School lunches help to reduce the large amount of truancy caused by the long uncontrolled noon recess. A light, well-planned meal in the middle of the day has an immediate effect on the children's power of attention and their resistance to fatigue. That this makes the remainder of the session far more efficient is the universal testimony of teachers wherever the lunches have been tried.

The elementary school lunch is established in 41 cities of the United States, 200 English cities, 150 German cities, 55 Italian cities, and 1200 French communities. Some of the results are as follows:

- (1) Nourishing food increases the mental efficiency of the children.
- (2) Lunches prepared and served under school supervision make for the formation of good habits of diet.
- (3) Supervised meals eaten in the group cultivate between teachers and children, and among the children themselves, a spirit of friendliness, of courtesy, and of democracy.
- (4) The school lunch forms a natural basis for the study of hygiene and physiology. It furnishes a working laboratory for domestic science classes, and for general instruction concerning the pure food movement, food costs, food values, and the relation of food to working efficiency.
- (5) The establishment of the school lunch leads to increased interest in school activities among the parents. Mothers seek to adapt the school menu to their household needs, come into close contact with the school dietitian, and the resultant friendship makes for coöperation between the school and the community.

Although a large proportion of our school children, 10 per cent by conservative estimate, are suffering from malnutrition, the relief of this condition is not the primary aim of those who are advocating school meals. It is their conviction that if the school is to assume responsibility it must be because of purely educational considerations. School feeding finds its justification in the fact that we cannot separate bodily and mental welfare; a well nourished mind is impossible in a poorly nourished body, and physical health is essential to the full mental and moral development of our children.

ADDRESS AT UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.¹

ALICE RAVENHILL.

“To the thoughtful, the broad-minded and the far-sighted, today’s ceremony is much more than the formal acceptance by the University of a magnificent gift; it is more than the public recognition of the importance and national worth of a group of subjects which, for generations, has occupied the lowly position of the proverbial Cinderella in the eyes of even advanced social reformers and educationalists, for this function attests to the forging of another link in the chain of imperialism by which our great empire is united for the advancement and protection of its people. Thus intimately to associate imperialism with the right conduct of life in the homes of the empire is no exaggerated figure of speech, no fiction of the imagination. It is quite legitimate to describe household economics equally with imperialism, as utilitarian in its objects; for its aim is to promote the welfare of our race, its spirit is democratic, and its methods peaceful. Imperialism recalls to the individual the responsibilities attaching to the goodly heritage he enjoys; so also does family life. It exacts from one and all service on behalf of his fellows; so also do domestic duties. It defines the lines along which concerted effort must be made to strengthen the weakest links in the chain, and ever keeps in view advantageous extensions of beneficial influence, reform and practice. Should not similar efforts characterize the intelligently conducted home? It has for too long been the custom, more or less contemptuously to condemn as wholly utilitarian the right conduct of human life in the home; which seems suggestive that the true significance of the word has been lost sight of. It was coined by John Stewart Mill to denote that system which makes the happiness of man the criterion of right. Without accepting the moral standard set up by this theory, it is nevertheless permissible to point out that the word itself may most fitly be employed to dignify, not to disparage, domestic duties, of which the ideal must ever be the happiness of mankind; that happiness which coincides with healthful development and ability to exercise to the highest capacity the mental and physical powers

¹ From the address delivered at the opening of the Household Science Building, University of Toronto, January 28, 1913.

with which the human race is endowed. If the definition of "utility" as the "quality of being serviceable or conducive towards some end or purpose" be accepted, then its application to a sphere of life which absorbs the energies of 90 per cent of our women is an honor to be coveted, not a slight to be resented. The association of the spirit of democracy with either imperialism or domestic efficiency is not so familiar but that it may be of interest to point out the connection, for it assists us to take that "broad view of things" (in this case of woman's work in the home) which Lord Haldane once described as the product of true education.

Until the race has attained a more perfect practice of social obligations control, even coercion, by the aid of legal enactments is compulsory. In the first instance, these laws were promulgated and imposed by leaders more far-sighted and influential than their fellows. As civilization progressed, it was found that if public opinion and conduct were to keep pace with legislation, power to make these laws, through duly elected representatives, must be entrusted to the people whom they so intimately concern.

In England public health laws date from the latter part of the first half of the nineteenth century and the reform bill became law in the preceding decade. But to legislate in advance of the opinion and ideals of the masses has again and again proved futile; and the task of arousing the public conscience devolves usually upon a few observant and enthusiastic individuals. Thus it was the sagacity, perseverance and tact of philanthropists which first drew public attention to the appalling need for sanitary legislation.

Xenophon very rightly drew attention to the fact that men and women live in reciprocal dependence. Civilization is the product of their united efforts to utilize the experience of the past in the service of the present. Hence, woman's long dissociation of herself from this pressing matter of securing improved conditions of life for the community; her failure to support public measures by intelligent domestic reforms, seem to account, in part, for the perpetuation of many conditions which menace and hamper the public weal. It is true that the power to enforce conditions which permit homes to be healthy rested for more than half a century entirely in the hands of men; but, meanwhile, the small group of women who were alive to their responsibility for the utilization and maintenance of better conditions within their homes, sought vainly for the coöperation of their mostly indifferent sisters, so that the general level of domestic procedure remained

much where it was. Instead of the audible shaking of the "dry bones" of tradition which should have been heard throughout the nation, there appears rather to have been a further entrenchment of suspicious housewives behind the shelter of great-grandmotherly methods, suited to and praiseworthy in their time, but calling urgently for revision in the light of modern knowledge. With what result? The spirit of social reform wandered over practically all other kinds of human activities, over every sphere of occupation in which men and women are engaged before it finally concentrated upon the most vital of all callings, that of maker of human homes. The home was considered too private for official invasion by forces doing battle in the professional and industrial world. What concern with the home had such measures for social or sanitary betterment as building regulations, the registration of births, deaths and marriages, poor law reform or organized education? Such ideas sound strangely antiquated to twentieth century ears. But have we even yet wholly outgrown the characteristics attributed to our last century compatriots by H. G. Wells: "It was an age full of restricted and undisciplined people overtaken by power, by possessions and great new freedoms; unable to make any civilized use of them whatever."

The erection and equipment of this fine building, its highly qualified staff, its eager students, and its proud connection with a university of world-wide fame, are conclusive evidence of a complete change of attitude on the part of a satisfactory proportion of Canadian men and women. Today's function marks a forward stride in civilization. It sets the seal of university recognition upon a branch of special departmental studies designed to prepare women for the peculiar calling it is their privilege to follow. For the last half century women have been afforded more or less opportunity for participation in the courses for men; only, however, by very slow degrees and associated with many misgivings, have such special courses as those pursued by women in this building won their way to even tentative recognition by universities, much less to an equivalent position with the older faculties of law, medicine and divinity.

For this state of affairs there are more reasons than the empirical methods hitherto accepted in the regulation of household affairs, which obscured the fact that, in common with other arts, those practiced in kitchen, nursery and laundry, are based upon scientific foundations. Woman's innate conservatism and her slow appreciation of the interdependence of public health, national efficiency, and domestic

standards are in part the cause. Then the excesses of the Restoration after the repressions of the Commonwealth appear to have fostered an exaggerated emotionalism in women, who, in previous centuries had prided themselves upon their skill in the arts and crafts, which increasing differentiation of labor has gradually justifiably removed from the home. They sunk into mere puppets for men's amusement, abandoning their honorable rôle of "loaf givers" to the community. Domestic matters were relegated to the untrained and most ignorant members of the family group and the results of defective performance were referred rather to the insignificant character of the duties than to the imperfect quality of the agents entrusted with their execution.

It is one feature of untrained minds that little or no thought is given to the immediate consequences of any line of conduct. The absence of mental discipline in what, for two or more centuries, passed muster as female education, or of any exercise of the reasoning powers, doubtless contributed to blind women's eyes to the fact that the life of civilized man is built upon the part played in every detail of existence by this all-pervading law of cause and effect. It can hardly be said that all women are even yet alive to this fact, in spite of fifty years of effort to popularize the overwhelming evidence of its verity by societies for this purpose. The world at large had for so long a period seen in man the one intelligent working machine of the social community, and women were so habitually classified as butterflies, bluestockings, or drudges, that it is of quite recent years only that woman has slowly become recognized as the chief propelling force in the evolution or devolution of the race.

There is also a widespread conviction that the whole duty of woman is fulfilled when she has acquired more or less skill in the arts of cooking, cleaning, sewing and washing; whereas these arts represent but a limited practical application of the broad conception which must be held of, and of the deep insight which must be gained into, the full scope of this comprehensive subject:—the right conduct of human life in the home.

Certain well substantiated facts which materially influence the quality of humanity must become common property if human potentialities are to be realized. The connection, for instance, between polluted water supplies and typhoid fever, cholera or dysentery; between flies, dust, infantile diarrhoea and other infections; between defective diet and dyspepsia; between mismanaged lives and nervous breakdowns, call for no profound study in order to be understood and

acted upon. All housekeepers should be interested in improved methods for the production, preservation, transportation and distribution of foods; as well as in the measures taken to check adulteration, to control sophistication or to enforce cleanliness.

Would tuberculosis still be so prevalent if homes were less dark, better ventilated, cleaner and not over heated? Is it not a serious reflection upon women that anemia, pneumonia, influenza, not to mention general slackness and debility, claim sufferers in almost every house? What proportion of mothers are training their children in habits which shall, at least, minimize the risk to others of infection from recent cases of "carrier" diseases? To what extent are housewives realizing their responsibility for the persistence of debility and intemperance, owing to monotonous or ill-prepared food? Should they not all be aware of the close and unholy alliance between alcohol and degeneracy; of the relation between mismanaged children and juvenile crime; of the pernicious and enduring results of insufficient sleep in childhood? Should they not set themselves to stem the rising tide of materialism and frivolity, of low morality, of luxury and false standards in recreation, of graft and greed in public life? Good intentions alone, interest unsupported by well corroborated facts, will not meet the case. Let me remind you of Charlemagne's words, when expostulated with upon his expenditure for the establishment of schools: "Although right doing is better than right thinking, yet must a knowledge of what is right precede right action."

While thus briefly indicating my conception of the claims and scope of this subject, I do not for one moment desire to belittle the practical side of housecraft as usually defined, neither do I propose that every housekeeper should follow out a course of study in which any attempt is made to embrace all the material necessary to a full comprehension of the root causes of all the conditions enumerated above. My purpose is to show that, when the group of sciences and arts upon which household management is based, is passed in review, it becomes obvious that only the resources of a university are equal to providing opportunities for the study which must be undertaken, and of the research which must be carried out, before anything worthy of the designation "Household Science" can be established.

Some may question the existence, or even the possibility of the existence of such a science. It is true that this is probably the first generation which has attempted any systematic investigation of this particular subject; but the innumerable difficulties encountered in the

prosecution of these tentative researches suggest the likelihood that they will engage the attention of many succeeding generations. Many more highly qualified chemists must descend from the rarefied atmosphere of their laboratories into the turmoil of empiricism which confuses and befogs the domestic reformer, before a tithe of the problems by which work in kitchen, laundry and storeroom is confronted, can hope for solution. The physicist has given more thought to the household application of his subject matter; water, electricity and gas, for instance. But the case rate of anemia and pneumonia testify to the still unsolved problem of domestic heating and ventilation; neither have the eyes of the average woman been opened to the properties and possible control of the four "elements" of the ancients, as utilized in every household.

Should not the biologist, out of his sound knowledge of the laws which govern the vital functions, insist that women should recognize their share in their application to the rearing of children and the maintenance of health in maturity? Is it allowable that in years to come the great spenders of the community should remain superbly indifferent to, because ignorant of, the principles of economics and the art of domestic finance?

There is little doubt that failure to take into account the fact that most reforms, if not all, filter from the higher to the lower strata of society, is answerable for a part of the slow advance since our pioneer women introduced the idea that training in the household arts was necessary half a century ago. The start was made with the children of the poorest class, whose difficulties of practice would appall the stoutest heart and, for many years, the instruction of these immature little students was, in England at least, entrusted to women incompetent to attain the standard of general knowledge required of public school teachers.

The courage and energy to readjust long accepted practice in the light of modern science is more likely to be found among those, for instance, who can perceive that the result of Darwin's teaching must permeate our whole conception of life and its duties. Evolution teaches that life is a thing of constant and perpetual change; that its quality depends upon its inherited nature as well as upon its capacity for adaptation to its surroundings; that the higher its manifestation the more prolonged is its period of immaturity, therefore the judicious care of childhood and youth calls for some acquaintance with the agencies which advance or hamper normal growth and development.

If physiology be taught from this point of view, that of laying stress upon the series of changes in structure which justify the statement that not a single tissue or organ in the young child corresponds in its minute details with those normal to the adult; if the influence of this immaturity and of the coincident irregularity in the growth of parts be emphasized, a flood of light is thrown upon nursery perplexities and school problems, to the enormous gain of the adolescent, and to the immediate assistance of the parent and teacher. Eugenics is still running the gauntlet of satirical misrepresentation and exaggeration, but it claims the examination of those capable of avoiding pitfalls, for it is concerned with a law of nature, inevitable, invariable, namely that certain effects, now more or less tabulated, are bound to succeed certain given causes. The whole fabric of civilized life is weakened or solidified by observance of this teaching, which constitutes a fundamental element in the practical application of theoretical hygiene. The student of ethics must be led also to link his theories with their application in the formation of habits of body as well as of mind. The physical organization of life, the right regulation of its rhythms, the cultivation of physiological righteousness and the development of a sanitary conscience, bulk largely in consistent training for collective life and in power to render service to the race. The character of a people's ideals, formed and fostered in the family circle, must be guided and stimulated by its students of psychology and ethics.

Human life, too, is conditioned at every turn by the economic relations of society. There is, therefore, urgent need for our economists to extend guidance to us on the subject of the economics of time, of energy, of health, as well as of money and labor. It cannot be denied that though, owing to machinery and improved methods the productive power of labor is enormously increased, yet the actual production falls far short of its potential capacity. More than one factor must be taken into account, but among the most important is the unsatisfactory quality of much human material. The man behind the machine is no negligible quantity. "What worth," said Lord Rosebery, "is an empire without an imperial race?" And so we find ourselves led on from the theoretical study of psychology to its economic applications in connection with temperament and the utilization of energy as well as of cash. The conservation of nerve force in the performance of daily routine calls for consideration. What useless frittering away of strength goes on in well-nigh every household! How relatively few women possess "economic consciences."

It is a stern but unpalatable duty to attempt to estimate the annual waste of money on so-called "bargains" or, worse than this, on patent drugs and so-called special "foods." These are but the most obvious illustrations of the average woman's profound economic ignorance.

No less important is it to enlist the assistance of experts in preparing those who assume the charge of households to a better conception of their responsibility for the education of its young inmates. Nowhere is the formation of character so active, nowhere is the standard of conduct more influential, nowhere are the seeds of intellectual thoroughness, of moral vigor, of practical efficiency, sown with such prospects of fertility as in the homes of a nation. Within their precincts the rising generation should learn its first lessons in mechanics, in physics, and in chemistry, by observing how these forces can be used to minimize labor, to foster convenience, and to banish disease. Such a liberal education frees the worker from the slavery of unintelligent convention and outworn tradition; it links him with daily human interests; it introduces him to the joy of service."

THE HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE BUILDING OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

ANNIE L. LAIRD.

The Household Science Building of the University of Toronto, the gift of Mrs. Lillian Massey Treble, was formally opened on January 28. The building was stated to be "the finest individual gift that the University has ever received." Sir Edmund Walker, chairman of the Board of Governors of the University, was chairman of the evening. Following President Falconer, Miss Alice Ravenhill, formerly lecturer in hygiene at University of London, King's College for Women spoke.¹

The following detailed description of this building is given as being of interest to those who are building or planning to build similar ones.

Realizing that we are influenced to a considerable extent by our surroundings, the architects have definitely aimed to give this building an uplifting and elevating effect upon those within its walls. The entrance hall, with its dado of white Italian marble, its Ionic

¹This address is found on page 250.

pillars of the same material and marble mosaic floor and leading from it, the main staircase, of the same beautiful marble, are impressive. On the ground floor there are the large lecture hall with panelled walls, its comfortable seats raised in tiers, and convenient arrangements for experimental lectures; the library with the walls lined with book cases, its well-lighted tables and inviting chairs made especially attractive by the cheerful glow from the fireplace; and connected with the library, a museum, which is also used as a reading room. There is also a faculty room with beautifully panelled walls, a fireplace at one end, a large table and comfortable arm chairs; two student's common rooms (one for household science students and the other for all the women students who come to the building for gymnasium work), fitted with tables and chairs; and a room for household art. These rooms are all finished—either panelled or with a 4 foot 6 inch dado—in fumed quarter-cut oak and the furniture is of the same material finished in the same tone of brown which harmonizes with the marble of the corridor. Throughout the ground floor and in all the corridors semi-direct lighting is used, and the soft diffused light from bowls and hanging lamps of Greek design made of camia glass enhances the beauties of the building.

The gymnasium, which is open to all women students of the University, extends through two floors—the basement and ground floors. The swimming pool is a few steps down from the floor of the gymnasium. Surrounding the pool are classic pillars which support the roof, and on one side of the room there is a row of dressing rooms, each with a shower bath. The partitions are of white marble. There are also the necessary shower baths, dressing rooms and lockers for the gymnasium, and a drying room and hair-drying room in connection with the swimming pool.

The second floor of the building is devoted to food work. Here are five food laboratories where one hundred students may at the same time study foods and their preparation. The attempt has been made to make these laboratories as sanitary as possible. The floors are terrazzo, the walls, up to the tops of the doors tile, and the rest of the wall and the ceilings a cement which gives a hard, smooth finish. The desks are of oak with Tennessee marble tops, and are fitted with drawers (with movable partitions), a small cupboard and swing seat. Sinks are placed conveniently and coal, gas, and electric stoves will be used. There are also built-in cupboards to accommodate the serving dishes, which are different in color for each laboratory, and

the necessary utensils and other equipment. The study of foods in the laboratory should lead up to the actual preparation and serving of meals, and in connection with this work there are a large dining-room and two small suites, each containing dining-room, pantry and kitchen. The walls of the large dining-room are panelled in oak. At one end is a built-in sideboard and at the other a big fireplace. The electric candelabra of old silver have dull gold shades, and the soft electric light together with the glow from the fire is very effective. There is a large round table in the center of the room. The linen used in all the dining-rooms has the initials U.H.S. embroidered in the corner, and the china of the large dining-room has on it in the form of a medallion, the crest of the University. Pantries, in which the china, linen and silver are stored, connect this dining-room with the laboratories on either side.

The small suites of dining-room, pantry and kitchen have been planned so as to make it possible for students to prepare meals under home conditions. One suite is on the second floor and the other on the third. Adjoining these, rooms have been provided in which some of the teachers, and the students who are working in the home suites may live. The dining-rooms are finished in fumed oak and have a small brick fireplace. They are furnished with rug, sideboard, dining table and chairs, and the necessary linen, china, and silverware. The pantry and kitchens have tiled walls and are furnished as in a home. On the second floor are also the office of the household science department, staff rooms, and store rooms for supplies and equipment.

The north wing of the third floor is devoted to household management. There are two laboratories in which cleaning agents and their effects on different materials are studied, a laundry and a home-nursing room. The laundry, where practical application is made of the knowledge gained in the laboratory, is fitted with white porcelain tubs, a steam boiler, steam dryer, ironing boards, ironing stove, electric and gas irons, etc. There are also convenient cupboards. The home-nursing room has four hospital beds and affords excellent opportunity for class work.

The south wing of the third floor is devoted to food chemistry and contains the office of this department, a lecture room with adjoining preparation room, and laboratories. The laboratories, which are especially equipped for the work, provide accommodations for over fifty students at one time. In one of them provision has been made

for research work of advanced students. Conveniently placed are the storerooms for glass and chemicals, and the balance room, and there is also a polariscope room. In the same wing are two private laboratories, one for the members of the staff in food chemistry and the other for the household science staff. The walls of all the laboratories on this floor are of tile and cement, as are those of the second floor, but the floors are of citrous tile instead of terrazzo, and the desk tops of the household management laboratories of alberene stone instead of marble, while those of the food chemistry ones are of white wood with a black stain ironed in.

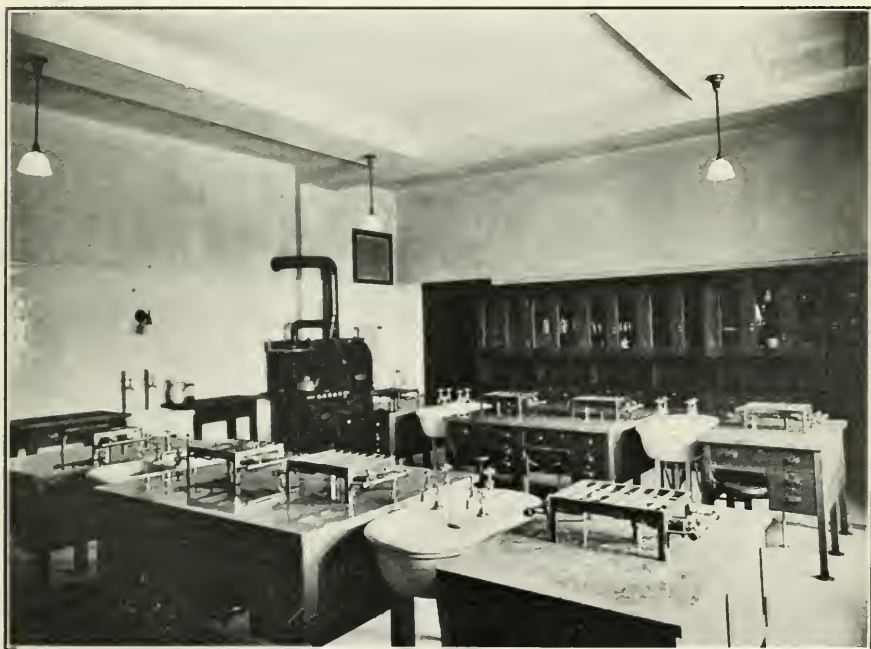
In planning the appointments of the entire building the nature of the work was kept carefully in view, and the aim has been to make everything not only durable, but convenient and easily cared for, while at the same time the artistic effect has been considered. The doors are plain, the panelling simple but dignified, the cupboards are without the usual mouldings, and grooves and square corners are avoided wherever possible.

One cannot but be impressed, not only with the beauty and dignity of the building, but also with its utility and the fact that it is admirably adapted for the purpose for which it is designed. A bronze tablet in the main entrance hall reads as follows:

This tablet is erected by the Board of Governors to commemorate the liberality of Mrs. Lillian Massey Treble who presented this building to the University of Toronto in order to promote the work of Household Science and thereby to further the education of women.



Food Chemistry Laboratory



Food Laboratory, Household Science Building, Toronto, Ont.

EDITORIALS.

In the city of Washington last September, in connection with the Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography, was held a great exhibit to illustrate the subject of personal and public hygiene. It drew crowds of people who looked with interest at models of outdoor sleeping porches; studied charts showing the bearing of immigration on insanity; read the lists of causes of infant mortality, and the data concerning insect disease carriers or death in dangerous occupations. By many this remarkable exhibit was considered as important as the 600 papers presented by specialists which gave to visiting scientists the latest word on the prevention of disease.

But great as was the good done by this exhibit, the newspapers at the time commented on its restricted value. Only for a few crowded days, only for such inhabitants of Washington as could be aroused by newspaper comment and for visitors who could make the journey to the capital at this special time, was the lesson available.

The 600 papers presented during the congress have been published, and, in journals and bound volumes, put at the disposal of the reading world, while this ingenious and interesting collection of models and pictures and charts was dispersed in a night. Parts of it will later be shown in other cities, but they will not possess the unique value which they had in their entirety and in connection with other exhibits.

The great expense connected with the installation of such an exhibit confines its benefits to large towns and special occasions, but this objection does not apply to smaller permanent exhibits that are quite within the reach of even small communities when once the importance of the graphic method of teaching is realized. To all it makes its appeal, but for the uneducated its use may be said to be indispensable. The nurse lecturing on pure milk for the baby must illustrate to a live mother with a live baby, and she must pasteurize the milk and wash the nursing bottle in the sight of her hearers or the lesson is not half learned. Only by the help of eye and hand can the majority of us so grasp a fact that we can use it.

All continuous exhibits, as permanent art galleries, museums and libraries, have an educative power vastly greater than the occasional show. They feed the longing of students; they broaden the view of the average man; and they are there to be consulted whenever need or suggestion causes us to turn to such a source. In the same way a permanent exhibit, bearing on all phases of hygiene and the arts of daily life, accessible at stated times, would bear fruit in a hundred ways helpful to the community life. Our people must become educated along these lines, and very soon, else great harm will result. If this end in practical helpfulness is in view, such a collection may be started along any line that appeals to local interest or pride. A town of 1500 inhabitants had as its cultural center a memorial library building with an unused room. To this a few enthusiastic townspeople began bringing relics of the past, and this proved to be the nucleus of a valuable historical museum, illustrative of the life lived in the region by the early settlers of two or three generations past. Tools, dishes, agricultural implements, spinning wheels, furniture are there, together with the daguerreotypes of many of the men and women who used them. Most of the utensils are strange to the children of this generation, who are full of questions regarding their use. Here is preserved an object lesson in the manner of living of our ancestors, and one result has been that this year the village school has made a study of early times in the locality and at the June commencement season there will be heard essays on the subject and illustrations will be brought from the museum. It will be extremely easy for the traditional two or three good-doers of a town to build on this foundation of interest in long past household and industrial habits an exhibit of modern methods in care of the sick and of infants, in good and bad methods of cookery, nutritional needs for different ages and occupations, good and bad plans for house interiors, the kitchen in which steps are wasted as compared with the kitchen in which steps are saved. Placards could tell of the best ways of laundering clothing, as approved by our technical schools, almost sure to be followed by a demonstration. Following the lines of the fly campaign which has accomplished so much, the graphic method could be applied to the combatting of other household pests. This would lead to a knowledge of the Farmers' Bulletins, issued by the different departments of our government and still unknown to the great majority of our people. Most fascinating of all material for placards will be found the family budget and its ideal division to

cover the needs of different groups. We love to create. Here is a field for practical and artistic gifts, an object far-reaching in its power for good. Let us have reports of the starting of the Local Permanent Exhibit.

A request has been made for galley proof of the Bibliography of Home Economics Literature published in each issue of the JOURNAL, for use in card catalogues. To meet this demand the JOURNAL will supply to libraries or to individuals the galley proof of each issue at the nominal price of fifty (50) cents per year. This is an excellent way to put within the reach of all, in a permanent form, this very valuable Bibliography which is too apt to be lost in the back files of the magazine.

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The Reduction of Infant Mortality in New York City. S. Josephine Baker, *Amer. Jour. Diseases of Children*, v, February, 1913, pp. 151-161.

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BOOKS AND LITERATURE.

Any books or periodicals mentioned in this department may be obtained through the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS at the price listed.

The Physiology of Protein Metabolism. By E. P. Cathcart. Longmans, Green and Company, New York. 1912. \$1.25. By mail of the Journal, \$1.35.

The author states that it has not been his purpose to cover the whole literature of protein metabolism but rather to provide a discussion of the more important results published during the last decade and their bearing upon the work of earlier investigators. "The majority of recent writers," he states, "have devoted their attention to the study of metabolism of particular constituents of the protein molecule; an attempt has been made in this monograph to avoid laying undue stress on the fate of these since it is felt that a truer picture of the real course of protein metabolism can thus be drawn."

There are chapters on the following subjects: Digestion and absorption of proteins; protein regeneration; feeding experiments with biuret products of digestion; deaminization; influence of the food on the composition of the tissues; protein requirements; theories of protein metabolism; starvation; and work, which includes such questions as the influence of work on the output of nitrogen, the difference between voluntary and involuntary muscle contraction, and carbohydrates and fats as protein spacers.

An index and bibliography are provided. The book as a whole is an important addition to the literature of protein.

The Condition of Nourishment of Pupils in Munich Public Schools. By K. Oppenheimer and W. Landauer. München. Med. Wchnschr., 58, 1911, no. 42, pp. 2218-2220; 59, 1912, no. 13, pp. 705, 706, dgm. 1.

The first of the articles included reports on a study of the physical condition of school children in two public schools in Munich, viz: a district populated mainly by day laborers, and one including some families in more comfortable circumstances. Age, weight, height, chest, upper arm measurements and general condition, were noted, and the relation between height and body weight of each child calculated. Comparing these figures with those commonly accepted as standard for children of various ages, the authors found that the children in both the schools investigated, notably in that in the poorer section, were decidedly below normal, on the average.

The second article included is an answer to criticisms called out by the deductions that the children here studied were necessarily undernourished. The authors suggest that a distinction be made between quantitative and qualitative undernourishment and discuss the most satisfactory means of determining general physical development from physical measurements, and similar topics.

The Effect of a Strictly Vegetable Diet on the Spontaneous Activity, the Rate of Growth, and the Longevity of the Albino Rat. By J. R. Slonaker. Leland Stanford Jr. Univ. Pubs., Univ. Ser., 1912, pp. 56, pl. 1, figs. 15.

Using two groups of young rats the same age and as nearly as possible of the same parentage, the author studied the effects of a vegetable diet in comparison with the same diet plus animal food. According to the author's conclusions, the omnivorous feeders were more active and voluntarily did much more work than the rats on a vegetarian diet, the average ratio of efficiency being 7.5 : 1.

"The effect on general conditions of the body was most overwhelmingly in favor of the omnivorous. The vegetarians were frail, weak, and showed extreme lassitude and indifference. The omnivorous were the reverse in all these respects.

"The average life of the omnivorous was 1,020 days, that of the vegetarian 555 days. This was a ratio of 1.84 : 1."

Revitalizing Devitalized Children—An Open Window Experiment. By Walter W. Roach, A.M., M.D. Reprinted from *American Journal of Public Health*, 3, 1913, no. 2.

This reprint is "a comparison between the progress of pupils taught in an open-window class-room and that of the pupils of a parallel grade taught in an ordinarily ventilated and heated class-room in the same school building." The experiment was conducted during the winter session of 1912. Desk chairs were used that could be easily moved aside for physical exercise. Woolen blankets, sweaters, woolen caps and hoods and knitted woolen gloves were provided for use in extremely cold weather. At the beginning of the experiment the children of both rooms were examined as to weight, height and chest measurement, and at the end of twelve weeks they were again examined. Those in the open air averaged a gain of two pounds, while those in the warm room, which was however well ventilated, averaged only one pound gain each. The work of the fresh air children also showed improvement. While in a marked degree these results are very interesting and point to the value of the fresh air school-room yet the experiments were conducted for such a brief period of time that they cannot be considered conclusive. It is understood that these experiments will be continued.

School Feeding: Its History and Practice at Home and Abroad. By Louise Stevens Bryant, of the Psychological Clinic, University of Pennsylvania. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 16 full-page illustrations and 6 charts in text. Octavo 233 + Index 12. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.

Public interest in the welfare of school children has made rapid advance along the line of settling problems leading to the prevention of physical deterioration. This splendid book on School Feeding by Mrs. Bryant presents an epitome of the progress which has been made in relating nutrition to education. The scope of the book includes the history and the present status of the School Feeding Movement in Germany, France, and England, and takes up in detail the results and the investigations of the Interdepartmental Committee on Physical Deterioration which first convinced England of the necessity of considering means for safeguarding the physical health of public school children. A chapter is given to a thorough discus-

sion of the provision of meals in the public schools of Great Britain after the passage of the Provision of Meals Act in 1906, which transferred the obligation of feeding hungry children from public or private charities to the local educational authorities.

Similarly, chapters are devoted to an analysis of the Cantines Scolaires of France, and various regulations which relate to the supplying of school meals in such German municipalities as Stuttgart and Charlottenburg.

The plan and legislation upon which they were based in Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Sweden, Norway, Belgium and Denmark receive brief but adequate description. Two long chapters deal with the problems of elementary lunches in elementary schools in New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Cincinnati, and St. Louis, together with an extensive discussion of the cost and mode of administration of meals in open-air schools.

The fifteen pages which are given to the Investigation of Underfeeding among American School Children give sufficient evidence to indicate the necessity and importance of school feeding for the purpose of safeguarding children from the malnutrition generally resultant from poverty and ignorance. For those who are not aware of the evidences of malnutrition in childhood, there is offered a concise discussion of the problem showing very clearly the relation of malnutrition to physical and mental defects. The two concluding chapters deal with the Food Needs of Growing Children together with a discussion of the caloric value and methods of preparation of school menus.

A most valuable feature of the volume is the thirty-two pages of annotated bibliography which is well prepared and practically complete to the date of publication.

A series of appendices present the English Provision of Meals Act of 1906 and the circulars issued by the London Board of Education, as well as regulations of the school breakfasts in Stuttgart. The remainder of the appendices are devoted to menus of dinners supplied at Bradford, England, and the Philadelphia schools, giving the per capita amount of the ingredients together with the per capita amount of protein and fat that is provided.

The book is carefully prepared, written in a most readable manner and supplies a wide range of information which is essential for the development of school feeding in this country. It may be unhesitatingly recommended as an authoritative volume which has a large measure of usefulness before it in educating the public to the importance of school feeding.

The Milk Question. By M. J. Rosenau. New York: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1912, pp. 310. \$2.00. By mail of the *Journal*, \$2.16.

This book is a simple and effective statement of an old question of vital importance, but one very generally misunderstood and largely misrepresented. The author is eminently fair in all his statements and makes a strong and effective plea for the truth. In the opening chapter under general considerations he presents his subject to the reader in such form that it cannot fail to attract. In the following chapters he then gives the necessary chemical and dietary data, discusses lactation, and makes a comparison of the various milks. The question of dirty milk and its dangers as a breeder of disease is treated fully, and also the diseases caused by impure milk, showing that all the blame must not be attached to the

milk, but much of it to human carelessness. The manner and cost of obtaining clean milk are discussed, and the card system of inspection explained. In conclusion the author shows how the consumer can help in obtaining clean milk, and the amount of responsibility that rests upon him. The book is a valuable contribution to the subject not only of milk but of foods and sanitation.

Proceedings of the American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. Third Annual Meeting held at Cleveland, Ohio, October, 2-5, 1912. Published by the Association, Medical and Chirurgical Faculty Building, Baltimore, Maryland.

This report, in addition to the list of officers, reports of the secretary and treasurer, and the general discussions and transactions, contains in full the very interesting papers that were presented at the meeting. The papers are printed under the sections under which they were delivered, and a partial list of them is given, as showing the valuable and broad work which the Association is doing. "The Aseptic Rearing of Children," Jacques Bertillon, M.D.; "The Federal Children's Bureau," Julia C. Lathrop; "Eugenics: The Rearing of the Human Thoroughbred," H. E. Jordan, Ph.D.; "Better Parents of Better Children," Helen C. Putnam, M.D.; "Education of Boys and Men for Home-Making in Part-Time and Continuation Schools," C. A. Prosser; "Home Economics Work in the United States for Men and Boys," Dr. C. F. Langworthy (see page 239 of this issue); Papers under the Section on Eugenics, Papers under the Sections of Birth Registration; Midwifery; Housing; Nursing and Social Work, among them being "Caroline Rest and School for Mothers," Miss F. Freese, R.N., and "The Public Health School Nurse and Infant Mortality," John H. Lowman, M.D. The volume contains also interesting reports of the affiliated societies, the Constitution of the Association and a list of the members.

Institution Recipes. By Emma Smedley. Published by the author, Media, Pa. \$1.25. By mail of the Journal, \$1.35.

The increasingly large number of those who believe that food cooked in large quantities may be appetizing, attractive and varied, will welcome the second edition of Miss Smedley's *Institution Recipes*. The writer has made no attempt to adapt her book so that it may be used in families, but, as the title indicates, has made a collection of recipes for large quantity cooking.

The book bears throughout the stamp of efficiency. For each recipe, the quantities to be used are stated in large units, and the exact number of people served is indicated. To further simplify the work for the one who is preparing the food, recipes are planned to serve one hundred or one hundred and fifty people, so that modifications to suit larger or smaller groups may be accurately made with a minimum of trouble. The worker who is obliged to vary her quantities will find the table on pages 5 and 6 helpful, and also the table of proportions on page 7. Directions are concise, clear and explicit, and there is an entire absence of involved sentences, or misleading statements. Nearly two hundred pages are given to the recipes themselves. They are grouped according to subjects and present a wide variety of ways of serving the staple articles of diet. Eighteen pages, for example,

are given to the cooking of meats, and the chapter includes in addition a few pages of valuable suggestions in regard to the buying and handling of meat. About sixty pages are given to salads, sandwiches, desserts, sauces for puddings, cake, and frozen desserts, and a glance over these pages is enough to show that this book of institution recipes tells how to prepare in large quantities the salads and desserts which are the joy and pride of the housekeeper in her own home, and which, in addition to a dietetic value of their own, go a long way toward making an attractive menu.

Many new recipes have been added in this edition, and are included in the complete index at the back of the book.

Miss Smedley's receipts have been thoroughly tested in the Johns Hopkins Hospital Training School, and more recently in the different lunch rooms of the Philadelphia high schools, of which she now has entire charge.

Miss Smedley has made this second edition of her book especially valuable through the addition of matter describing briefly, but quite in detail, the luncheon system which is in use in all the Philadelphia high schools. On page 207, she states what is served at a typical lunch both for pupils and teachers. Complete menus for a week are given, and also a week's menus for institutions providing the three daily meals. At the end of the book are sixteen pages, which are worth much to any Board of Education as giving all directions for inaugurating such a system. The chapter on Equipment would simplify immeasurably the inauguration of a new and up-to-date luncheon system.

Birmingham Studies in Social Economics and Adjacent Fields. II. The Public Feeding of Elementary School Children. By Phyllis D. Winder, Birmingham Women's Settlement. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1913. \$0.75, By mail of the Journal, \$0.81.

A review of the general situation and an inquiry in the Birmingham experience.

Publications of the Society for Social Reform: School Feeding in Greater Berlin. By Helen Simon. (Schriften der Gesellschaft für Soziale Reform. Die Schulspeisung in Gross Berlin). Herausgegeben von dem Vorstande. Hest 8 des IV. Bandes, der Gonze Reihe 41. Hest. Jena: Verlag von Gustav Fischer, 1912. Preis: + 50 Pfg.

The Care Committee: The Child and the Parent. By Douglas Pepler. London: Constable and Company, Ltd., 1912. 2 s.

A small volume containing the history of the Provision of Meals Act to the children of poor parents; and an account of the children's care committees, their work and organization, with particular reference to the place of the voluntary worker and the duties of an official.

A Book of Hand-Woven Coverlets. By Eliza Calvert Hall. Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1912. 16 colored and 48 half-tone illustrations. Price \$3. By mail of the Journal, \$3.24.

That this book is the work of an enthusiastic admirer and collector of handmade American coverlets is apparent throughout. Her belief that they represent an important phase of artistic expression also permeates the volume. On an early page she says, for example, that "The colonial coverlet is to American art what the prose works of Increase Mather and the verses of Anne Bradstreet are to American literature." There are many charming descriptions given of the different steps in the making of the coverlets, some of them probably imaginary, others based on old records regarding the home preparation of the linen and wool threads, the dyeing, and the weaving.

The British, Dutch, Scandinavian, and French settlers in the American colonies all brought the art of home weaving to this country, but it was perhaps most highly developed among the Scandinavians and the French Huguenots. Interesting specimens of home weaving are to be found throughout all the states of the northern and middle Atlantic seaboard and also in the southern mountain states. The designs are for the most part strictly geometric but often very intricate. Some of the weavers used to work with no written guide, others from brief notes, and still others from designs or drafts set up in such a way that they rather resembled a musical staff. There were at least six methods of writing drafts and these rather indicate the nationality of the weaver who employed them. The art of weaving seems to have been more or less inherited, some families being especially gifted. Practically all of the designs were named by the weaver, who sometimes put his or her name into the margin along with the date of making, and the same design often appears under different names in different localities. The book includes a list of several hundred of these names, some of them flowery, leafy, or poetic; some prosaic or grotesque; some purely fanciful; and some evidently given to celebrate a contemporary event. In only a few cases does the name at all suggest the design. The quaint and homely recipes for dyeing the wool by means of wild plants make the chapter on colors especially charming. The methods, though crude and empirical, gave results which, according to the author, rivaled those of Oriental rug makers in softness and durability of tone. The coverlet designs may include several contrasting colors, two or more tints of the same color, a single color combined with white, or simply one color softened by the linen warp threads.

Early in the nineteenth century the professional weaver began to make his appearance. Housekeepers still prepared the wool, but let the professional make it up as he (or she, as the case might be,) was of course better able to handle the intricacies of the double weaving which now became popular. This type of weaving corresponds roughly to machine-made Marseilles coverlets and allows of very elaborate designs. The famous "E pluribus unum" quilts, with their patriotic emblems, mottoes, etc., perhaps represent the acme of the art.

The oldest specimens of hand-woven coverlets now in existence hardly go back more than one hundred and twenty-five years. By the time of the Civil War hand weaving had sunk practically into disuse, though the simpler forms survived to a limited extent in the remoter districts of the southern mountains. The schools and other institutions interested in developing handicraft among the southern mountaineers of today have reintroduced both single and double weaving in those sections of the country.

The illustrations of the book, both half-tone and colored, are accompanied by notes regarding the history of their subjects, and give an excellent idea of the character of the designs. Though perhaps one may not agree with the author that the best of the coverlets "are to the textile world what Raphael's 'Transfiguration' is to the world of art," one leaves the book in full sympathy with her feeling that they represent one of the most common and enduring forms of artistic expression known to American women in colonial and early republican times.

Household Textiles. By Charlotte M. Gibbs. Whitcomb and Barrows, Boston. \$1.25. By mail of the Journal, \$1.35.

This is an instructive book for the housewife, and an aid as reference book for the college student. There is an introductory chapter on the early development of the textile art, and in this as in the chapter on spinning and weaving, the status of the textile art in earlier stages of culture is so presented that the achievements of the primitive tribes of Egypt, India and Mediaeval Europe furnish an interesting groundwork on which to build an intensive study of the modern textile art. After a classification of the textile fibers in most common use, the detailed study of these follows, covering the history of the cultivation and distribution of the fiber; its relative importance in modern industry; the physical and chemical structure and characteristics; and the processes involved in the making of cloth from the preparation for the mill to the woven fabric.

The subjects of bleaching, dyeing, printing, and finishing are treated in a popular and intelligible manner, a fact which makes the book welcome to the average reader. The discussion of the methods of adulteration and imitation with some simple tests easily applied, aim to instruct the non-scientifically trained reader, as do also the chapters on the hygiene of clothing materials, on labor conditions and efforts to improve them, and on the arts and craft movement. The subject of design and color in textile fabrics is treated from the standpoint of principles involved, and is illustrated with applications of the same. Miss Gibbs has given us a timely book well illustrated.

Dressmaking Self Taught. By Edith Marie Carens. Carens College of Dressmaking, Jacksonville, Fla. \$1.00. By mail of the Journal, \$1.08.

This book is composed of a series of twenty lessons describing in detail the making of garments, plain shirtwaists and tailored skirts, undergarments and wash dresses, and also more elaborate dressmaking, tailored coats and suits. There is an introductory lesson in hand sewing accompanied by diagrammatic illustrations.

The system of instruction in cutting patterns is one of modification of commercial paper patterns to suit the individual, and the suggestions in cutting and fitting are therefore valuable to the learner at home who has no knowledge of any drafting system. Preceding each lesson are good directions for taking measures, and following each are found constructive advice in technique, rules to remember and questions suggesting applications of the lesson. The book is written in a popular style and is of value to the teacher and also to the home dressmaker who wishes to become a professional.

The Story of Textiles. By Perry Walton. Boston: Lawrence and Company. 1912. Pp. 274.

In the foreword the author states that the different branches of textile industry have from time to time been treated, yet the origin and growth of the industry as a whole has never been written. "This book, of which some explanation is necessary, is an effort to fill this gap. Although a complete history has not been the aim of the writer nor the desire of the publisher, the purpose has been to present to those interested in the textile industry a bird's-eye view of the leading facts which have marked the progress of the industry up to the firm establishment of the manufacture of textiles on American soil, together with such intervening facts as are necessary to give one a comprehensive view of the subject." The book is interesting, well written, and is often entertaining. A brief survey of the beginning of textiles is followed by the history of the factory system from an account of John Wincombe's factory in his Newbury home in 1515, where he is described as having "kept one hundred looms in his house, each managed by a man and a boy," with a short account of the invention of textile machinery and a brief mention of the men to whom the textile industry owes the basic inventions which have revolutionized it, through the era of invention down to the present day. The textile industry in America is treated quite fully, beginning with American industry before the Revolution, American industry after the Revolution and before Slater, era of Samuel Slater, era of Lowell, Appleton, Moody, Jackson and Boott, and concludes with a short summary of the various textile centers of the United States. There are many interesting illustrations.

Dyes and Dyeing. By Charles E. Pellew, formerly Adjunct Professor of Chemistry at Columbia University. McBride, Nast and Company, New York, 1913. Pp. viii + 264. By mail, \$2.00.

"The book is intended for the use of craftsmen and others who are trying to dye and stain textiles by hand on a small scale, rather than for professional dyers or dyeing chemists who are interested in factory dyeing conducted on a large scale."

Teachers of art and of textiles will find *Dyes and Dyeing* a textbook which is very reliable and at the same time extremely readable. The book commands absorbing interest because it combines in one volume some generally unknown facts about the art of dyeing in ancient times; a study of the various natural dyes which are most commonly used by different peoples, and their method of application; an exposition of the discovery, properties and uses of the manufactured dye stuffs now so widely used. Popular distrust of coal tar colors should be dispelled when craftsmen and even the courageous housewife follow the simple directions given in such chapters as, *The Theory and Practice of Color Dyeing*; *Dyeing Feathers*; *Leather and Leather Dyeing*; *Tied and Dyed Work*. There is a clear and adequate treatment of the five chief classes of dyes used by professionals today, with lists of tried and tested dyes, together with the addresses of the distributors from whom they may be obtained. There is a timely treatment of the subjects of silk dyeing, silk weighting, tests for silk adulteration, and of imitations and artificial silks.

The various interesting methods suitable for craftsmen by which dyestuffs are used to form patterns on cloth are treated under the headings of *Tied and Dyed Work*, as practiced in different parts of the world; *Stencils and Stenciling*, as prac-

ticed by the Japanese, with directions for improved technique of American students; Batik or Waxed Resist, which is an interesting form of the Japanese textile art, and which can be performed easily by students of applied art in schools.

The book is well illustrated both in color and in black and white. It is to be recommended to craftsmen, to students, and to teachers of textiles.

Colour Harmony in Dress. By G. A. Audsley. New York: McBride, Nast and Company. \$0.75. By mail of the Journal, \$0.81.

Most writers on topics of dress are satisfied, when discussing the difficult question of color, to give arbitrary, and usually quite empirical tables of colors suited to women of different physical types. Mr. Audsley has done much better by his readers. He has a scientific knowledge of his subject which enables him to base his instruction on "the teaching of the natural phenomena of colour and colour combinations which no individual opinion can possibly affect or dispute." The chapter on "Harmony of Colour" discusses, in a simplified form, the laws of harmonious color; in the brief chapter on "Simultaneous Contrast" the effect upon the eye of the association of colors is taken up; the long chapter on "Colour in Dress" presents extensive lists of colors for types and gives the laws of their choice.

Mr. Audsley's little book will interest every woman who gives intelligent thought to the problems of dress; it will be of particular service to teachers of domestic art.

Household Statistics—An Historical and Methodological Investigation. By G. Albrecht. (Haushaltungstatistik—eine literarhistorische und methodologische Untersuchung. Berlin: 1912, pp. viii + 126, fig. 1)

This is a rather technical statement of the significance, nature, and methods of the statistics of household economy. The first half of the book gives an historical sketch of the development of the subject from the unsystemized work of Young, Davies, Edens, et al., through that of Ducpétiaux and Le Play, to the systematic application of the account book method by modern scientific statisticians, and includes an extensive bibliography of the historical material. The second half of the book deals with the principles by means of which uniformity in household statistics may be secured; discusses the nature, choice, and utilization of material; and gives a few typical tables, charts, etc.

The Evolution of the Country Community—A Study in Religious Sociology. By Warren H. Wilson. Boston, New York, and Chicago: The Pilgrim Press. 1912, pp. xvii + 221. \$1.25. By mail of the Journal, \$1.35.

The purpose of this book is indicated in the preface written by Prof. Franklin Giddings, who points out that for the solution of the problem of maintaining the good life in our rural communities a thorough understanding and analysis of its factors and conditions are essential.

This social unit has "suffered in nearly every imaginable way from the rapid and rather crude development of our industrial civilization," and many of the difficulties now apparent are due to anomalies between its economic, social, and ethical standards which in many instances belong to different phases of agricultural development. Four such phases may be traced in the history of agriculture in the United States, each producing its typical effect on the individual, family, and community life. The first is that of the pioneer and is marked by intense

individualism induced by solitary conflict with the forces of nature, isolation, and lack of permanent dwelling place. After the pioneer phase came that of the land farmer who cultivated the soil for immediate utility. He had little community consciousness; the central part of his social life and responsibility was his family or household group, and in a conflict between its interests and those of the community he would favor the former. By 1890 agricultural development had in its economic aspects mainly passed out of the land farmer phase, but the ethical standards of most rural communities changed less rapidly. The third phase, that of the land exploiter, bridges over the industrial revolution between the methods of the land farmer and the modern husbandman or trained economist in agriculture. To the exploiter the immediate money value is the only one apparent, and he ruthlessly exhausts the soil and the other natural resources of the country for direct pecuniary advantage. Fortunately, the exploiter tends to work his own destruction, and in his place is appearing the husbandman, the typical cultivator of the fourth and as yet incomplete phase of our agricultural development. The aim of the latter is by the application of scientific principles to adapt his crops to the specific nature of his land and to get the largest product consistent with the proper conservation of soil value. This type of agriculture requires both trained leaders and intelligent workers, and tends to change the social unit from the household group to the community itself. More than this, now that land has become limited in amount "the very fact that one-third of the people must feed all the people imposes ethical and religious considerations upon the farmer. . . . This means that with the growing consciousness of scientific agriculture there will arise, indeed is now arising, a new ethical and religious feeling among country people."

"The power of the community to attract and hold individual lives, supplying them with the vital necessities for which the individual craves, is dependent in America upon educational institutions more than any other factor." At the close of the land farmer period, country schools failed in their community work in so far as they encouraged pupils to leave the country, and neither produced leaders nor trained average workers for rural life. This was partly due to poor equipment and the lack of professional standards among the teachers, but mainly to a total lack of understanding of the needs of the community. The present tendency toward centralizing rural schools and the introduction of vocational courses in agriculture, manual training, and domestic science, indicate a conscious effort to adapt the school system to present requirements.

The lessened influence of the country church may be explained in a similar way. The "old-fashioned literary interpretation of God and biblical ministry" were suited to a community in which the ethical and social ideals centered in the household group of the small land owner, but make less appeal to one which consciously or unconsciously is struggling to readjust its ethical standards to changed economic and social conditions. If the church is to be a stimulus under such conditions, its business is to preach coöperation as an ethical principle, "to organize coöperative enterprises, economic, social, and educational, and to school the people in the joy, and educate them in the advantages of life together," and it should be a leader in the organized recreation which inevitably develops wherever industry is organized. Where a church has thus responded to the vital needs of a community, such questions as church consolidation, means of attracting worshippers, etc., are settled with little effort.

The book gives many specific examples of these, the main points of its argument,

and signifies the author's belief "that a population can be improved by social service, that the community is the unit by which such service should be rendered in the country, and that by the vision and inspiration of the church in the country this service is conditioned." It suffers at times from a phraseology so technical as to be slightly bewildering to the lay reader, nevertheless he joins with Professor Giddings in welcoming it as a "fine product of studies and labors at once scientific and practical."

The Advance of Woman, from the Earliest Times to the Present. By Jane Johnstone Christie. J. B. Lippincott, Philadelphia 1912. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.

As Alice Henry says in a review in the *Survey*, this book seems to have been written with the Bible at one side of the desk and Ward's Sociology at the other. It assumes to trace the history of woman through periods of time regarding which we have very little information. One might take issue with some of the positions taken as regards man as ruler, woman's degradation, man a social coward, etc. With regard to the fundamental point that progress will only come as men and women join in working for it, and that real home life depends upon unity of purpose and ideals, all will be in hearty agreement. In a word the book makes an unnecessary amount of ado about things regarding which we cannot be at all certain. We do know the present and can see something of the future. Woman's advance and man's advance are bound to turn upon this ideal, personal unity in family life referred to above. A book which would outline methods of progress rather than berate humanity for past errors would be double the value of this book, although it is decidedly worth reading.

Report of the Women's Institutes of the Province of Ontario. Toronto: Ontario Department of Agriculture, 1912.

This report gives in detail the proceedings of the tenth annual convention of the Ontario Women's Institutes. An interesting account of these Institutes by the superintendent appears in this issue of the JOURNAL. In addition to the report of the work of the Institutes in the counties of the province, some of the papers are printed in full, the following being of particular interest: "Electricity on the Farm and in the Home;" "Young Women and the Twentieth Century;" "The School: Its relation to the Community;" "What Can We Do for the Boys?" "St. John's Ambulance Association;" "Water Supply for Country and Village Homes;" "How to Keep Well;" "The Value of Cheese in the Diet;" "Domestic Science;" "Medical Inspection in Rural Schools;" "Rural School Houses and Their Equipment;" "The Doctor in the School;" "Hygiene for Rural Schools." This report contains many suggestions for club study, and valuable reports as to the success of such studies in various communities.

School Janitors, Mothers, and Health. By Helen C. Putnam. American Academy of Medicine Press, Easton, Pa., 1913, pp. ix, 201. \$1.00 post-paid.

This book brings together three series of papers published during the years 1909-1912 in the *Child-Welfare Magazine* and two addresses delivered before scientific societies. The subjects of the series are: Prevention of School Fatigue; Mothers' Clubs and Clean Schoolhouses; School Janitors and Health—and of the addresses:

Practical Aspects of Biologic Science in School Administration; The Problem of Janitor Service; and The Training of Janitors in Sanitary Care of School Premises.

Dr. Putnam writes upon the care of children in the home and in the school with the authority of a practicing physician and upon the sanitary condition of school buildings from the point of view of a person who has made extensive personal investigations. What she says on either subject is to be considered authoritative and is likely to prove widely helpful. There is more or less repetition, doubtless owing to the serial form in which much of the material was originally published. Fortunately, this will not lessen the usefulness of the book as an outline for class or club study. The main contention of the writer, that a working knowledge of hygiene and sanitation should be demanded of school janitors, is well upheld and it is to be hoped that the publication of the book will help to impress parents and teachers with the menace to health due to ignorance on the part of those who are responsible for the daily care of school buildings.

In her plea for better care of public buildings, Dr. Putnam writes: "It is certain that if in vocational or technical or continuation or trade schools were courses for janitors and their superintendents, intelligent interest and efficiency would be secured and public health improved. Every large city has several hundred janitors of schools, apartment houses, office buildings, theaters; as well as Pullman porters, train and street car conductors, hotel managers. We need to introduce educational and health standards in this important occupation. No good home maker has the dirty floors and atmosphere with which we shut up children and instructors."

The Kitchen Fire and How to Run It. By Samuel Seward Wright. Published by the author, Scranton, Pa. 1912. Pp. 97. \$0.75.

A manual designed for the housewife giving directions for the care of the stove and the saving of fuel, with special reference to the management of drafts. Special appliances for use with coal and gas stoves are described and pictured and the names of their manufacturers are given, but the author assures us that he has no financial interest in any of them.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Chemistry of Food and Nutrition.** By Henry C. Sherman, Ph.D. New York: Macmillan Company. 1912. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.
- A New Book of Cookery.** By Fannie Merritt Farmer. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. 1912. \$1.60. By mail of the Journal, \$1.75.
- Handbook of Home Economics.** By Etta Procter Flagg. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. 1912. \$0.75. By mail of the Journal, \$0.81.
- The New Hostess of Today.** By Linda Hull Larned. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.
- Principles of Human Nutrition.** By Whitman M. Jordan. New York: Macmillan Company. 1912. \$1.75 net. By mail of the Journal, \$1.90.
- School and the Home.** By Adolph A. Berle. New York: Moffat, Yard and Company.
- Training the Boy.** By William A. McKeever. New York: Macmillan Company. 1913. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.
- Vocations for Girls.** By Mary A. Laselle and Katheryn Wiley. New York: Houghton, Mifflin Company. \$0.85. By mail of the Journal, \$0.92.
- Woman in the Making of America.** By H. Addington Bruce. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. 1912. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.
- Woman and Social Progress.** By Scott Nearing. New York: Macmillan Company. 1913. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.
- Divorcing Lady Nicotine.** By Henry Beech Needham. Chicago: Forbes and Company. \$0.35. By mail of the Journal, \$0.38.
- Women as World Builders.** By Floyd Dell. Chicago: Forbes and Company. \$0.75. By mail of the Journal, \$0.81.
- The Man and the Woman.** By Arthur L. Salmon. Chicago: Forbes and Company. \$0.75. By mail of the Journal, \$0.81.
- Making the Farm Pay.** By C. C. Bowsfield. Chicago: Forbes and Company. \$1.00. By mail of the Journal, \$1.08.
- The Table for Two.** By Eldene Davis. Chicago: Forbes and Company. \$1.00. By mail of the Journal, \$1.08.
- Constructive Rural Sociology.** By John M. Gillette. New York: Sturgis and Walton. \$1.60. By mail of the Journal, \$1.75.
- Annual Report of the State Board of Health of Maryland.** For the year ending December 31, 1910. Baltimore, 1912.
- Report of Milk Inspector.** For the year 1911-12. Health Department of the city of Boston. 1912.
- City Smoke Ordinances and Smoke Abatement.** By Samuel B. Flagg. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines. Bul. 49. 1912.
- Second Annual Report, 1911-1912, of the Committee on School Lunches of the Home and School League.** Philadelphia. 1913.
- Mutton and Its Value in the Diet.** By C. F. Langworthy and Caroline L. Hunt. U. S. Department of Agriculture, Farmers' Bulletin 526. April 19, 1913.
- The Distribution of Incomes in the United States.** By Frank Hatch Streightoff, Ph.D. New York: Columbia University, Longmans, Green and Company, Agents.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD.

A mass meeting for homemakers was held in Boston on March 7, under the auspices of the Massachusetts Federation of Women's Clubs and of the New England Home Economics Association, the Twentieth Century New England Club acting as hostess. Mrs. Stannard, president of the New Home Economics England Home Economics Association presided, and introduced as the first speaker Mrs. Julian Heath of New York who gave a clear account of the history and aims of the Housewives' League. To give an idea of the wide interest the League has aroused, Mrs. Heath stated that on one day her mail may contain over six hundred letters representing every part of the country, every industry and every walk in life. It is so far organized that though not yet two years old, it is already an economic factor in the community. The tradesmen are ready to welcome an intelligent buyer, and the League stands for "The Fair Deal" on both sides. Mrs. Heath was ready to answer the many questions about details of the work in various cities.

The next speaker was Miss Sarah Louise Arnold, of Simmons College, who considered the subject of Housewives' Centres, saying that this is a much needed institution and something sure to come in the future. "Society today is made up of widely different groups of very different needs and experience. In a small town or village the problem is simpler than in the cities. The library might be made useful as such a continuation school. On stated days books, exhibits of devices, etc., might be prepared, and an interpreter ready to assist all visitors. In every community, its needs, natural leaders, suitable meeting places, etc. must be studied to get valuable results from such work. The community requires education first in order to establish the habit of mind and desire to make use of such a center. In Boston, the Louisa Alcott Club has long been such a center for a crowded neighborhood."

The last speaker of the afternoon was Mr. George B. Purrington, manager of the Charles River Coöperative Society who gave a history of the Society and explained the practical working. Although but two years old, the value of the experiment is already demonstrated.

A spirited discussion followed these papers in which all the speakers participated.

A meeting of the Teaching Section of the New England Home Economics Association was held at the Brookline High School on March first. The speakers were Miss Flora E. Anderson, Newton Technical High School, whose subject was "Certain Aspects of the School Luncheon Problem;" Miss Charlotte M. Bragg, of Wellesley College, who spoke on "College Entrance Requirements in Home Economics;" Mrs. E. H. Hawes, Washington Allston School, Boston, who described a model house for home economics teaching and work actually undertaken in it. The homemaking class at this school is fortunate in an unusually practical course of study.

An informal discussion followed.

A committee of the New England Home Economics Association is arranging a Home Economics Exhibit, to be held at the new building of the Elizabeth Peabody House, Boston, early in May. It is hoped that this may be the first of a series of annual exhibits and conferences at which the housewife may gain help and inspiration for her work by seeing how others are meeting her problems. The plan is to get the coöperation of other organizations working on similar lines in order that work may not be duplicated. The following exhibits are expected. Foods; clothing; house decoration; market supplies; books for the homemaker; child welfare; textiles; electric equipment for the house; laundry appliances; kitchen equipment, etc.

A series of conferences on various aspects of the work illustrated by the exhibits will be held at which free, informal discussion will be welcomed.

In order to meet the expenses of the exhibit, it is planned to serve afternoon tea, and to sell home made cakes and candies. It is expected that the Home Economics Section of the Women's Clubs will take charge of this department.

The annual meeting will be held at Warelands, Norfolk, Massachusetts, early in June. This will give opportunity for the study of a model milk farm, and of a delightful old time country home, as well as give the members of the Association a charming outing.

At the annual election of officers held April first the following were unanimously elected: President, Miss Emma S. Jacobs, 3509 11th Street; vice-president, Mrs. Washington H. J. Patterson, College Park, Md.; recording secretary, Miss Home Ethel J. Ridgway, Grafton St., Chevy Chase, Md.; treasurer, Economics Miss Marion L. Pollard 2801 18th Street; corresponding secretary, Miss Ellen Marshall Rugg, 1813 Newton Street. Associations.

At the open meeting the subject of Textiles was further developed. The papers and discussions were most interesting and helpful. A motion was made to appropriate the sum of \$5 for relief work among the flood sufferers. One of the members and her family have suffered to a great extent. Another motion was made to appoint a committee to make investigations, gather samples and report on the dress goods and fabrics sold in this city. This committee will make an effectual campaign within the year and put its data into available shape. All this will be done in an effort to bring about legislation in the interest of "pure" textiles as a companion to "pure" food. The motion was the outcome of the study of textiles during the past winter.

An Exposition was held in San Francisco, May 22 to 24, exhibiting the work of boys and girls of San Francisco. The division in the exhibit included industry, arts and crafts, home economics, art collections, music, commerce, animals and the garden. The plan of the Exposition was to include anything that a San Francisco boy or girl can do or make. The exhibits were arranged according to the age of exhibitors under 13 to 16 years, 16 to 18 years, and under 20 years. The Director of the Home Economics Department was Mrs. Mildred N. Fenton of the Mission Grammar School.

The University of Texas gave a One-Week's School of Home Economics at the University from February 10 to 15. This is the first time any work in this line has been given by the University. The course was enthusiastically received and well attended. The following lectures were given: Municipal housekeeping; Civic sanitation; The house behind the man; What to wear and how to wear it; The blot on the brain—Who is to blame? The conservation of the child, by Dr. Carolyn Geisel; The modern household; The household and community (State Legislation regarding family, women, children, health, municipal housekeeping, and public service); Household, income and expenditures; Division of income expenditures for necessities. Factors determining per cent to be expended for food, shelter, and clothing; Division of income (continued), expenditures of choice. Factors determining per cent to be expended on education, travel, philanthropy, securities through saving; Household budgets and accounts, by Dr. Benjamin R. Andrews. Art in the home (Color—A force in material expression); Art, industry and education; Art in the home, Principles of color, harmony and their application to interior decoration and costume; Use and abuse of historic period in modern furnishings; Principles of color and form applied to dress; Meaning and function of arts and crafts, by Frank A. Parsons. Lectures and demonstrations: The principles of cookery; Milk and eggs; Fish, fowl, and flesh (Illustrated by charts and experiments); Vegetables and grains; Products of the flour barrel; All sorts and conditions of kitchens, by Miss Anna Barrows. Nutritive value of foods; The importance of the menu, by Miss Anna Richardson. Some problems of house building; Sanitary problems of the home; The house and how to plan it, by Prof. Mary E. Gearing. Food for the growing child; The problems of the lunch basket, by Miss Jessie Rich. Relation of the home to the state, by Governor Colquitt. Home and education, by Lieut. Governor Mayes. Relation of home to society, by Mrs. Percy V. Pennypacker. Our food supply; Insanitary conditions of production (An illustrated lecture), by Dr. Abbott. Ruskin's teachings on the home and home economics, by Dr. L. W. Payne, Jr.

The president of the State Conference of Charities and Corrections called a conference for the purpose of preparing a constructive reform program to go before the legislature. This meeting was held January 28 and 29, and was attended by about two hundred people representing twenty organizations. The following resolutions which were made have since been passed by the legislature and signed by the governor:

Texas Social Welfare Conference. Strengthening the juvenile court law by providing probation officers and enabling counties to appropriate funds for this purpose; establishing a state industrial school for delinquent girls; authorizing and empowering counties to establish where necessary county hospitals and dispensaries with visiting nurses; requiring the erection of sanitary school buildings; defining and punishing family desertion and non-support; giving married women the same control of their separate property as that exercised by men; restricting the hours of labor of and providing seats for working women; the suspended sentence; and the indeterminate sentence with parole.

The fifth annual meeting of the Homemakers' Conference was held in connection with Farmers' Week at the New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, February 11 to 15. The program, which was an interesting one and well carried out was as follows: Introductory talk on foods, by Miss Clara Browning, Instructor in Home Economics, New York State College of Agriculture; The boys and girls, Miss Flora Rose, Professor of Home Economics, New York State College of Agriculture; The economy and preparation of left overs, Mrs. Ida S. Harrington, Assistant in Home Economics, New York State College of Agriculture; Septic tank for the home, Mr. Howard W. Riley, Professor of Farm Mechanics, New York State College of Agriculture; Demonstration bread making, by the Rural School pupils; Milk in the diet, Miss Rose; Care of milk in the home, Mr. Harold E. Ross, Assistant Professor of Dairy Industry, New York State College of Agriculture; The farm house, Mrs. Helen Binkerd Young, Assistant Professor of Home Economics, New York State College of Agriculture; Home Economics at Cornell, by Miss Rose and Miss Martha Van Rensselaer, Professor of Home Economics, New York State College of Agriculture; Carving a chicken, Miss Mary Yates, Lecturer, Toronto, Canada; Garden flowers: what they are doing, Mrs. Anna B. Comstock, Lecturer in Nature Study, New York State College of Agriculture; Pictures for the home, Mr. W. C. Baker, Assistant Professor of Drawing, New York State College of Agriculture; Labor saving in housekeeping, Miss Van Rensselaer; Helps for home study, Miss Caroline Webster, Library Organizer, Department of Education, Albany, N. Y., and Miss Mary P. Parsons, Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.; Care and preservation of eggs, Mr. Earl W. Benjamin, Instructor in Poultry Husbandry, New York State College of Agriculture; Bread making, Miss Rose; The housewife and the cost of living, Mrs. Julian Heath, National President Housewives' League, New York City; Dressing, trussing and carving a chicken, Mr. Benjamin; Appreciation of books, Miss Alice G. McCloskey, Associate of Rural Education, New York State College of Agriculture; Home-made sweets with demonstration, Mrs. Harrington; Scientific Management, Miss Van Rensselaer; The art of furnishing, Mrs. Young; Household accounts, Miss Fleming; The housekeeper and the cost of living, Miss Van Rensselaer; The relation of appetite to digestion, by Miss Rose.

The growing number of women who enter trade occupations in Amsterdam caused the municipality to establish a woman's labor exchange in 1909. In the three years that it has been operating it has increased in importance until now the director and her nine assistants, also women, can scarcely cope with its business. The bureau is divided into different departments, such as shoemakers, servants, extra helpers, and various other occupations. Recently a department has been organized for office personnel—stenographers, typewriters, clerks, etc.

To give an idea of the extensiveness of the operations of this bureau and its growing popularity, 1192 girls found employment through its mediation in the month of January, 1912, while 1755 were so placed in the same month this year. Last year a total of 18,231 women found employment through this bureau. No fee is charged for service rendered by the bureau in this connection, while advice and assistance to working women in general are freely given at all times. (From *Daily Cons. and Trade Rpts.*, U. S., 16, 1913, no. 71, p. 1515.)

Menominee, Michigan is to have, for the beginning of next year, a new building for training in domestic science and art, manual training and physical culture.

The plans, as adopted by the board of education, provide, for the domestic science and art department, a sewing room, fitting room, kitchen, dining room, laundry and all necessary cupboards, cabinets and pantries. The physical training department consists of a gymnasium, running track, dressing rooms, shower baths, rest-rooms and all conveniences usually found in this connection.

The purpose of the new school is to provide more and better practical training for those who must begin life without advanced education. The boys are to be helped to become better wage earners, home providers and citizens, the girls to become better homemakers, housekeepers, home nurses and helpmates. The physical training department will form a nucleus about which to make the school a social center to counteract undesirable attractions, through contests and entertainments, literary and gymnastic.

In both domestic science and manual training emphasis will be placed on the two upper grammar grades and the first two high school years. Special classes will be offered for those pupils who are one or more years behind their grade. The records of attendance and falling out of school indicate the need of special training for these people for their life work. The falling off in attendance up to the middle of the sixth grade is not alarming, but as compared with the attendance of the sixth grade that of the seventh shows a shrinkage of one-fifth, that of the eighth two-fifths, and that of the beginning of first year high school a shrinkage of five-eighths.

A special course has been organized in advance for those who expect to attend high school for only two years. The student may decide later to remain the four years and fill out his course with regular academic subjects for graduation. This course consists of a combination of domestic science and commercial work for the girls or manual training and commercial work for the boys.

A college preparatory course is also offered in both manual training and domestic science and art in accordance with the requirements of the University of Michigan, and other universities of the north-west.—*Manual Training Magazine*.

The report blanks provided in Adair County, Missouri, have spaces on one side for the grading in school subjects by teachers. On the other side they have spaces devoted to "industrial work," where the parents grade their girls on sweeping, dusting, baking, sewing, washing dishes and ironing. Boys are marked by their fathers on feeding stock, milking, currying horses, providing fuel, and feeding poultry. Blank spaces are left for other sorts of home work. In a note addressed to teachers and parents, Superintendent Sipple says: "Pupils get credit for the work they do at home. Home grades should be considered by the teacher in making the final grade and to determine promotion."—*Journal of Education*.

Report Blanks for Home Work.

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON SCHOOL HYGIENE.

Congress to be held at Buffalo, New York, August 25-30, 1913, under the patronage of the Honorable Woodrow Wilson, and the presidency of Dr. Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University.

Secretary-General, Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York, New York City.

PROGRAM

General topics to be considered.—(I) The hygiene of school buildings, grounds material and up-keep; (II) The hygiene of school administration and schedule; (III) Medical, hygienic, and sanitary supervision in schools.

Special sessions and discussions on the following problems.—(I) The relation between school hygiene and home conditions; (II) The relation of school hygiene to school progress; (III) The teaching of hygiene; (IV) Rural school hygiene; (V) School children as carriers of disease; (VI) Eye diseases among school children; (VII) Hygiene of the defective child; (VIII) The relation of athletics to health; (IX) The hygiene of play; (X) Vital statistics; (XI) The relation of spinal curvature and flat feet to the health of the child; (XII) Ventilation.

Symposiums.—School feeding, arranged by the committee on school feeding of the American Home Economics Association; Oral hygiene, arranged by the National Mouth Hygiene Association; Sex hygiene, arranged by the American Federation of Sex Hygiene; Conservation of vision in school children, arranged by the Society for the Prevention of Blindness; Health supervision of university students, arranged by Mazyck P. Ravenel, M.D., Professor of Bacteriology, Director of State Hygienic Laboratory, Chairman Hygiene Committee, University of Wisconsin; School illumination, arranged by the Illuminating Engineering Society; Relation between physical education and school hygiene, arranged by the American Physical Education Association; Tuberculosis among school children, arranged by the Society for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis; Physical education and college hygiene, arranged by the Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges; The Binet-Simon test, arranged by Professor Terman, Stanford University; The mentally defective child, arranged by Henry H. Goddard, Vineland, N. J.

Special papers will be read on: School clinics, School decoration, Drinking facilities, Rural districts, Fields for games, Rest rooms, Summer camps, Village schools, School nurses, School architecture, Prevention of epidemics, Lunch rooms, Libraries, Open air schools.

SECTION ON SCHOOL FEEDING.

PRELIMINARY PROGRAM.

A. Conference on school feeding.

In the conference it is proposed to discuss School Feeding in two general groups of papers: first, those dealing with the nutrition of children as an educational and a national interest; second, those dealing with the practical problems arising in administering school lunches in different places.

I. Nutrition and malnutrition of school children.—(1) Historical summary and present status of the school feeding movement; (2) Medical inspection and the nutrition of school children; (3) Nutrition of anemic and tubercular children; (4) Malnutrition and mental defectives; (5) Special studies in the correlation of malnutrition and disease; (6) Nutrition of children and national conservation.

II. System of school feeding.—The following topics will be considered in several short papers after which the meeting will be thrown open for round table discussion by representatives from the different countries: (1) School lunches in cities: How best administered and by whom? (2) Lunches in rural schools; (3) Lunches in high schools; (4) Relation of menus to standard dietaries; (5) Distribution of cost over administration, service and food; (6) Training of the school dietitian; (7) Educational and social possibilities of school feeding; (8) Economic principles underlying the movement.

B. Plan of exhibit on school feeding.

The exhibit will consist of charts and photographs illustrating the movement, together with a demonstration of material equipment, and so forth, as follows:

I. Charts showing: History and extent of movement; Results of experiments on growth, general health and attendance; Relation of malnutrition to disease and physical and mental defects; Food needs at different ages; Food value and cost of school lunches compared with lunches bought by children elsewhere.

II. Photographs from different countries showing: Children at meals; Kitchens and dining rooms; Fixed and movable equipment; Vans and vessels for transportation; Utensils and serving dishes, particularly if specially designed.

III. Material for demonstration: Record blanks; Tickets; Serving dishes, etc.; Menus, dietaries and recipes; Municipal and state regulations regarding administration, duration of meals, character of food used, etc.; Books and pamphlets on school feeding; Advertisements of books on school feeding.

The exhibit will be open daily from August 25 to August 30. Demonstrators for the Section will be needed and coöperation is hereby solicited for this most important part of the work.

Following are the names of some of the persons and organizations who are being invited to coöperate in the conferences and exhibits on School Feeding as outlined:

United States.—Alice C. Boughton, Louise Stevens Bryant, Dr. William H. Burnham, Kate Carman, Elizabeth E. Farrell, Alice M. Hotchkin, Caroline Hunt, Dr. Woods Hutchinson, Isabel Hyams, Mabel Kittredge, Dr. C. F. Langworthy, Mary H. Moran, Mary C. Small, Dr. Mary Schwartz Rose, Emma Smedley, Dr. Ira S. Wile, Superintendents of Schools and Committees on School Lunches in the forty-one American cities having school lunches.

England.—Dr. Ralph Crowley, Marion Cuff, Margaret McMillan, Donald Peppler, Phyllis D. Winder, British Institute of Social Service.

Germany.—Dr. Gastpar, Anna von Gierke, Dr. Kaup, Helene Simone.

France.—Dr. Courgey, Dr. Dufestel.

Italy.—Alessandro Schiavi, Dr. C Tonzig.

Switzerland.—Dr. Erisman.

Austria.—Dr. Leo Burgerstein, G. Timeus.

Scandinavia.—Alida Jacobson.

The Committee will be most grateful for the names of any other persons or organizations who might be interested or persuaded to take part.

THE NATIONAL CONSERVATION EXPOSITION

The National Conservation Exposition which will be held in Knoxville, Tennessee, during September and October though national in scope, will have as its prime object the preservation of the natural resources of the southern states, through improvement in the methods of production and consumption so as to eliminate unnecessary waste. The principal lines along which exhibits are to be made are forestry, scientific agriculture, the development and increased use of waterways for both power and navigation, the conservation of mineral wealth and the protection of human life in mines, the preservation of fish and game, and human efficiency, including child welfare, home economics, rural life improvement, and good roads. A National Advisory Board at Washington, composed of leading authorities upon all these subjects, and headed by Gifford Pinchot, President of the National Conservation Association, is directing the plans for all exhibits dealing with conservation. Mrs. Mary Hinman Abel, of the American Home Economics Association, is the member of the Advisory Board who represents home economics.

The exposition grounds have already been laid out and occupy over 100 acres. Several of the buildings, including those to be devoted to forestry, liberal arts, and live stock are completed, an agricultural building with an auditorium is nearly completed, and other buildings, including an All-Southern States building, are in the architect's hands.

The Kentucky board is to represent the exposition in that state and to assist in securing participation in the exposition by the state and by such public and private organizations and individuals as are interested in any form of conservation. Similar boards are being organized in the other southern states. Among other state chairmen are Dr. Edwin A. Alderman, President of the University of Virginia, U. S. Senator Ellison D. Smith, of South Carolina, Dr. William Bullock Clark, State Geologist of Maryland, and John H. Wallace, Jr., Commissioner of Game and Fish of Alabama.

Home economics is recognized as so important an element in greater human efficiency that the Exposition is devoting special place to it, and it is the plan to encourage the advancement of this subject by exhibits such as a model small dwelling properly furnished and cared for, labor saving devices in the home, demonstration meals publicly prepared and served by the domestic science students of agricultural colleges and high schools, demonstrations of ways of selecting and cutting meat, demonstrations of proper methods in marketing, samples of methods of domestic bookkeeping, and lectures on domestic science and economics.

EIGHTH INTERNATIONAL DRY-FARMING CONGRESS AND INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF FARM WOMEN.

The International Congress of Farm Women, which is the Rural Home Section of the International Dry-Farming Congress, will be a part of the program of the eighth international meeting of the latter association, which is to be held at Tulsa, Oklahoma, October 22 to November 1, 1913.

The Dry-Farming Congress has conferences on agricultural education, farm management, agricultural forestry, scientific research, agricultural colleges and experiment stations, and similar topics; but the one which is of greatest interest to home economics workers is the International Congress of Farm Women. To this Section farmers are urged by the Congress to bring their wives, women farm owners are asked to participate, and agricultural colleges and other schools are asked to send their home economics workers, their field directors, and their extension workers in order that the character, extent and results of the home economics movement may be brought directly to the attention of rural housekeepers. Rural home nursing, sanitation, the preparation of food, housekeeping methods and efficiency, and other home problems will be discussed.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—JUNE 27-JULY 4, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, NEW YORK.

The Annual Meeting, as before announced, will be held at Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, June 27 to July 4. The program of the Association has been planned so that there will be no sense of hurry, and there will be only two sessions a day. It is not yet possible to give the program in full, but some of the topics to be discussed are: The Social Side of Home Economics; Vocations and Culture; The Girl in Industry; Preparing the Girl for Industrial Vocations; The Basic Work in Science; The Basic Work in Art; An Experiment in Teaching Economics; Some Results Found in Study of the Factors of Bread Making; Problems in the Preparation and Use of Foods; The Relation of House Planning to Home Economics; The Problems of Rural Life; and "The Best Way Yet," a discussion of housekeeping, equipment and methods. The School for Rural Leadership will be in session at the same time and offers many interesting programs.

The Trunk Line Association has given a rate of one fare and three-fifths. This includes New York State except west of Buffalo; Pennsylvania except west of Warren, Oil City, Franklin, and Pittsburgh; West Virginia, District of Columbia, Northern Virginia, Maryland,

Delaware, and New Jersey. The same rates have been granted for New England. Please read carefully the following directions:

(1) Tickets may be purchased at any time from June 24-29, inclusive.

(2) Buy regular ticket to Ithaca and ask for certificate. *Do not accept a receipt.* Certificates are not obtainable at all stations, but any agent can tell you where they may be purchased.

(3) On arrival at Ithaca, deposit your ticket and 25 cents *at once* with Miss M. B. Lake. The special agent will come on June 30 to validate certificates.

(4) The reduction will not be given unless 100 certificates are presented. Everyone is therefore urged to get the certificate, even where the saving is small, as it helps others. If less than 100 certificates are turned in, the 25 cent fees will, of course, be returned.

The cost of living at Cornell will be moderate. The charge for a room will be 75 cents a day. The cafeteria of the Home Economics building will be run for the benefit of the Association, the cost of meals being from 75 cents to \$1.00 a day.

All who wish to engage rooms are asked to do so as early as possible, for the convenience of those in charge of Sage College. For reservation address Department of Home Economics, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, telling when you expect to arrive and whether you wish a room alone.

THE Journal of Home Economics

Home, Institution, School

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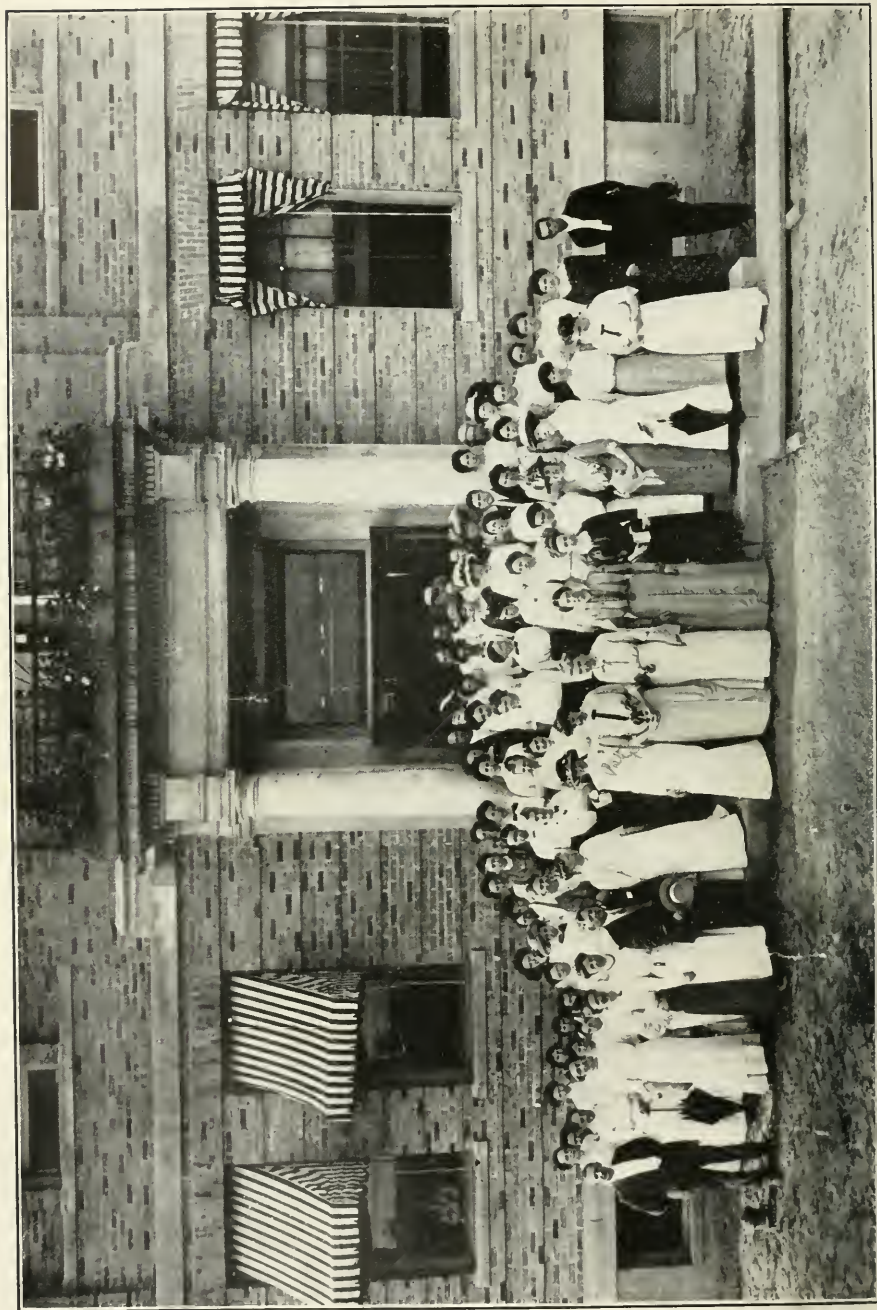
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HOME ECONOMICS FROM A MAN'S POINT OF VIEW.¹

THOMAS NIXON CARVER.

Director of Rural Organization Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

I sometimes think that if I could write a book—that is, a good book, I should write it on the subject of the child as an article of consumption. I have not in mind any such cynical idea as the proposal of Dean Swift, to serve up Irish babies on English breakfast tables as a means of restoring the prosperity of Ireland. But I have in mind, first, a rather nice distinction in economic theory, and second, an incident which came under my observation about two years ago. Economic theorists make the distinction between producers' goods and consumers' goods and they base this distinction upon the question whether the goods under consideration satisfy wants directly or indirectly. All goods which satisfy wants directly are called consumers' goods, but all goods which satisfy them indirectly, by enabling us to get the things we really want, are producers' goods. The child as an article of consumption, therefore, merely means that the child is a source of direct rather than indirect satisfaction. The incident referred to was as follows: A small boy, about three years of age, was playing in the street with some other children of about his own age and apparently having a glorious time. He was out in the open air and getting exercise of various desirable kinds. A very proper and well-dressed maid came out and said "Come, Johnny, you must now come and take your walk," and so Johnny went walk-

¹ Presented at the Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Ithaca, 1913.

ing demurely down the sidewalk with this very proper maid, taking his morning exercise. That sight, I think, must have been very pleasing to the parents of the child. They undoubtedly got a great deal of direct satisfaction from the extreme propriety of the occasion. The properly dressed maid with the properly dressed child, walking properly down the street served as a sort of stamp, or trade-mark, or badge of respectability. The child seemed therefore to be an article of consumption.

I have no objection to children being considered consumers' goods; there is really something to be said in favor of that idea. But there is such a thing as over-consumption—as gluttonous and ostentatious consumption. It is when consumption ministers to greed or vanity that it becomes objectionable.

If the child is really considered as an article of consumption, in the proper sense, it will help to solve some rather important domestic problems. You have doubtless heard of the efficiency engineer who saw a father amusing his child by tossing it with his own arms. It occurred to the engineer that there was a considerable waste of energy in his crude and primitive manner, and that he could invent a simple machine by which a father could toss the child twice as high and many times as fast with less expenditure of energy. The difficulty with this scientific gentleman was that he did not know what economy is for. He did not realize that we do not ordinarily try to economize in consumption, we try rather to lengthen out the processes of consumption in order to get more enjoyment. Processes of production which we do not generally enjoy are the ones which we try, or generally try, to shorten up. If tossing the baby is simply an act of production, it would be wise economy to invent a large milk shake machine to do the tossing, but if it is an act of consumption there is no more logic in trying to simplify it than there would be in a machine to macerate our food for us and save the work of our jaws and teeth.

This efficiency engineer is not perhaps so extreme a case as we sometimes think. I have read books which make seriously the suggestion that it is a wasteful process to bring up children in separate households. Why, it is argued, waste energy this way when they could be brought up much more economically in large institutions and thus leave the parents with more energy to spend on things in which they are more interested. But obviously, if children are objects of consumption, the process of bringing them up is a source of

direct enjoyment. That is the last thing in which we want to economize time and energy. The only reason why we should want to economize energy is in order to have more energy left for some other purpose which we consider more important. What would the father do with the energy which he saved by a baby-tossing machine? He might use it in tossing a baseball; but here again, it looks like a very wasteful process to throw a baseball by human muscles when a machine can be invented which will throw it much more accurately and swiftly. The answer of course is that if people can get enjoyment out of the work of playing baseball they do not want to economize in that work and turn it over to machines. What would the parents do with their surplus energy if the children were turned over to a public kindergarten? They might, of course, have more time to spend on politics. Here the same question is raised again. Why not turn politics over to a few experts and leave the rest of us more time to do the real work of life? If we like to play politics there would be no economy in simplifying the process. If we dislike politics, it would be good economy to turn the government over to a few special experts. Or the suggestion may be made that if we could get rid of the work of caring for children we could have more time for pleasure or culture. But again, why not turn pleasure and culture over to a few experts and leave the rest of us more time for honest work? Let us not take anything for granted if we are going into this question at all. If we get more pleasure from the care of our households and our families than from these other things, it would be very much more sensible to economize energy in politics, or pleasure, or culture, and leave us opportunity to put all our time on our households. But, of course, if on the other hand, the care of families and households is irksome and we would rather be spending our time in pleasure and culture and other outside interests, then we need an economist to show us how to save energy for these purposes which we consider more important.

I would like to suggest, as a hypothesis, which you need not accept at once, that the dominant ambition of every man and woman ought to be the ambition to build a family. I use the word "build" advisedly. I do not mean spawning. There are too many people spawning today. Instead of encouraging spawning by pensioning motherhood, some parents ought to be fined. But family building is quite a different thing. Incidentally, let me suggest that the question of the endowment of motherhood has been worked out long ago. It is

all summed up in the single formula, "with all my worldly goods I thee endow." That is the only scientific way ever discovered for the endowment of motherhood, that is, where it really works; where the words really mean what they seem to mean. If the ambition to build a family were the dominant ambition, the man who pronounces these words would really mean what he said. Thereafter he is a mere tentacle thrown out to draw in subsistence for the building of the family. His business from that day forth is the endowment of motherhood and nothing else. He may go into a profession or into business or other gainful occupation, but these occupations are the subordinate ones. They are the means and not the end. These gainful occupations are the means of foraging, the ways by which he, the tentacle, brings in sustenance for the unit, which is the family.

This hypothesis has a great many interesting possibilities. If every man who pronounces those words "with all my worldly goods I thee endow," takes them seriously and makes that his chief business, and if the woman who allows those words to be pronounced regards herself from that day forth as consecrated to motherhood and nothing else, it would change a great deal of our social and political thinking and many of our social problems would solve themselves automatically.

In the first place no one would then talk of economizing energy by turning over the care of children or the household to a few experts. Rather than do that we should turn politics, culture and pleasure, and even business, over to a few experts in order to economize energy. Again, it would change our ideas of social classes. Now by a social class I mean a group of people whose interests in some way conflict with those of other groups. A physiological difference does not make a social class. It is only a difference of interests that makes a social class. If men and women have large conflicting interests then men and women are of different classes. Since no class can be trusted to legislate in the interests of another class whose interests conflict with its own, the conclusion is fairly obvious as to the extension of the ballot. But if they have no conflicting interests, then they are not separate classes, and the reason disappears. Now if the dominant ambition of both men and women were the building of families, there would be no conflict of interests. Here instead of forming two classes, men and women would form but one. If, however, such a productive ideal or ambition as this is lost sight of, and the chief purpose is pleasure, or luxurious consumption or the gratification of

vanity in any of its forms, then men and women have conflicting interests. With expensive tastes and a limited income, what the man consumes the woman must do without. And what the woman consumes the man must do without. There is a direct conflict of interests. And where you have such a conflict as that, you are likely to have injustice, because one class will not safeguard the interests of another when their interests conflict.

Or suppose the dominant interest is culture. Now there is real culture and there is what ordinarily goes under the name of culture. The latter is commonly identified with expensive tastes. People who possess this culture generally are merely people with expensive tastes and limited incomes. Among such people there is undoubtedly a conflict of interest between men and women. The man knows that if he marries he must give up some forms of expenditure, and the result is he frequently does not marry or he postpones it. In the second place, if he does marry, the conflict of interests is so acute as to result in a somewhat higher divorce rate among such people than among others. In the third place, with this psychological background there is a perfect realization that every new mouth that enters the family has to be fed and reduces the income which can be devoted to the gratification of the tastes of the parents. One result is no new mouths come into the world to be fed, or a very few at most. And the conflict of interests goes further than this, the rank sense of injustice which women feel when their interests as consumers are not safeguarded by their rival consumers—men, accounts for a good deal of the feminine unrest of the present day.

Thus far I have simply tried to show that the natural and logical result of the dominance of the ambition for family building would be to put men and women into one social class rather than two, whereas, when the dominant ambition is one of graceful consumption, of culture or achievement in other lines than family building, the conflict of interests places them in two social classes instead of one, and all of these results follow logically as a matter of course. I have not yet undertaken to show that one group of results is better than another or that family building ought to be the dominant ambition.

Of course real culture does not consist in expensive tastes and does not increase the cost of living. What is culture except the development within one's self of resources which will satisfy and therefore do not require outside and expensive means of gratification? Is there

any better ideal of culture than that degree of self-development which makes one independent of outside conditions in his enjoyment of happiness? An old school of philosophy is summed up in the advice "Live according to nature." Living according to nature meant something rather definite to those old philosophers. Observing that nature is bounteous in the supply of some things and niggardly in the supply of other things, this advice would seem to mean that we should gratify a taste for those things whereof nature was bounteous rather than for those things whereof nature was niggardly. The great elementary wants are capable of being pretty fully satisfied without any great drain upon the resources of nature. But things which minister to vanity are, and must from the very nature of the case be, scarce. Anything which is not scarce but abundant, can never gratify vanity. If it is abundant, everybody can have it, which does not distinguish one at all. But if it is scarce and very few can have it, then it distinguishes its possessor and ministers to his vanity. Much of our modern ideas of culture are merely methods of gratifying vanity by the cultivation of the habit of looking for the things which are scarce rather than for things which are abundant. A sounder idea of culture, which would cultivate a taste for things which are abundant rather than for things which are scarce, would enable a cultured person to live more economically than an uncultured person.

If we had that kind of culture you would not find conflict between men and women, grouping them in separate classes, or one sex insisting that it is being classified, set off to itself and discriminated against. If you hold strictly to the ideal of family building as the dominant ambition, you cannot talk in such language as this and keep your faces straight. But when you forget that ideal and begin to think of wealth as means of consumption, and of gratification as the chief business of life, then there is a conflict of interest between men and women, and that conflict of interest produces a good many of our social problems.

In a talk which I gave very recently I got over into the field of scriptural exegesis and suggested that the old story of the talents had a real meaning because talents in the original sense were money. But that story is utterly absurd if you think of money or wealth as a means of gratification. If your idea of wealth means gratification, how absurd it would be to take away the one little means of gratification from one man and give it over to another man who had ten.

There is no meaning to it at all if you put it that way. But suppose you reverse your whole idea of wealth, erase that idea entirely from your mind, and think of wealth as a means of production, a tool for the building of a community. Then consider that one man was given a tool which he did not use. He hid it away and it was wasted. Another man used his tools so productively that they doubled; he added to the capital of the community. Obviously it is a waste of tools to leave them in the hands of people who do not use them, they must be taken out of their hands and put into the hands of people who do use them. Thus interpreted the story has a pretty clear and definite economic meaning, and that happens to be the meaning of the New Testament. There never was in the New Testament a condemnation of wealth or ownership, but the selfish consumption of wealth is always and everywhere condemned.

One of the results of the prosperity which has come to us in modern times is the forgetting of that elementary principle. Our religion fitted us well for the conditions of poverty in which it found us; it gave us the discipline which was necessary to sustain us under hardship and poverty, the courage and the fortitude to withstand the temptations of poverty. The thing that we now have to work out is a religion, or an interpretation of the religion that we have, which will give us the strength to withstand the temptation of prosperity. The old Indian's remark that the Indian never was born who could withstand prosperity might almost be extended to include the white man. The facts that we have mentioned demonstrate the failure of our religion to train us for prosperity if with prosperity comes this ideal of selfish consumption, and the consequent conflict between man and woman who are in competition as consumers. If they have forgotten the real ambition of life and are pursuing these false ambitions, the failure of religious people to build families will result in the failure of the religion itself.

If as the result of a sound and wholesome religion poor people grow out of their poverty, it is because they have the discipline which is necessary to bring them out. Dr. Crothers tells me that out in western Canada it is not uncommon to see a man on Sunday afternoon put on his Salvation Army uniform and get into his motor car and motor down to the Salvation Army meeting. They are only a little in advance of the rest of the world in Canada. You cannot keep people poor who have the right kind of religion, but the test of their religion will come when they have become rich and prosper-

ous. The question then is, will their religion protect them against the temptations of their prosperity? If so, it may have a permanent existence; if not, the religion will die out with the people who possess it. If the members of the Salvation Army, when they become prosperous, cease to build families, why of course their type of religion will disappear with these people, following the example of every other progressive type of religion.

Suppose you could imagine trees having morals and religion. In a thicket of young pines the struggle for existence is very intense. It is said by foresters that if you cut a half inch off of a young pine the chances are that it will never catch up, because it will get a little less light than its neighbors, and the next year it will be more than a half inch behind. It will continue losing ground until eventually the others will crowd it out. Now suppose you can imagine these trees having religion and that some of them have a religion which rather depresses and keeps them down, or gives them a false idea which restricts growth in some way, whereas other trees have a religion which stimulates growth. Which of those two religions would prevail eventually? Why, the one that belonged to the trees which themselves survived. The one which belonged to the trees which were tending towards elimination would be eliminated with the trees that possessed it. I do not see but that we are all under the same ultimate law. The people who have the religion, or the morals, or whatever you choose to call it, which preserves the ambition of the family builder, and keeps that in the foreground, and makes all others subsidiary to it, will, I predict, eventually own the earth. Every religion which fails to do that will be eliminated.

Now I do not know that this proves anything definitely. It appears that the people who get the discipline, moral training, or religion, or whatever it may be which causes them to build families, will survive longer, multiply faster, and grow more powerful than others and will eventually own the earth, at least in a larger degree than other people. Does that prove anything? I think we can say this much at least; whether it is desirable or not *it will be*; that is what will happen; the people who possess a discipline which fits them for growth and adds to their strength and prosperity will grow strong and prosperous and others will not. That is a mere statement of fact. Does that statement of fact justify it? It might be that we would regret that the particular trees in this thicket survived and the others disappeared. We may like the others better. Still we

would have to admit the fact that the trees that had survived did survive, and the others did not. There is a certain cosmic force about a principle of that kind. Whether we like it or not something of that kind is likely to happen among human beings and civilizations. We may admire the reckless spendthrift or the selfish consumer; we may imagine that if we had created a universe we would have made it very much better; we would have made it so that the likable spendthrift would have flourished, and the unlikable puritan would disappear. However, we did not happen to be present, and we did not make those suggestions to the Creator when the universe was created. It is *this* kind of a world, and what will be, will be.

Now just at this point I would like to suggest an interpretation of the philosophical dictum that "That is good which is capable of becoming universal." This, it seems to me, has been misinterpreted. We sometimes interpret it as meaning that that is good which we would *like to see* made universal. I do not think it means quite that. That is good which is capable of becoming universal whether we like it or not; that is good which is capable of forcing itself on the world and making itself universal in spite of our likes and dislikes. I know that this will be attacked on the ground that nature does not know anything about right and wrong, and good or evil; science is unable to discern a moral order, etc. Suppose we face about and say that whatever the order of the universe is, that is the moral order. That whatever nature or the universe tends to produce inevitably as the normal working of cosmic economic law is good whether we like it or not. If the universe is in conflict with our idea of what is good and nice, instead of saying: So much the worse for the universe, I think it would be more modest to say: So much the worse for our ideas. Now apply that to the thicket. Instead of saying: The laws of forest growth are all wrong; there is nothing moral about them. Let us not assume that we know how forests ought to grow. Let us take a more modest view and say that whatever the forest laws are we must conform to them. And likewise with the human forest, whatever the laws of growth are for human beings we must accept them as right. Whatever the order of this kind of a universe is, it is the divine order; whatever we discover in the laws or the uniformities of this universe are merely the uniformities in this divine will. If we have such an idea as this, I think we will be prepared to accept at least the conclusion that whatever tends to succeed in such a universe as this is that which should succeed. That is right and

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HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE

good which tends to become universal. After all, I suppose a religion or a scheme of morality is a kind of a means of defense just as teeth and claws, hoofs and horns. That group which has the best system of morality, a system which makes it most efficient in growing, in adjusting itself and holding its own against the hostile forces of the universe, will prevail; while that group which has a system of morality which does not fit it to survive in the universe does not have a good system. Our likes and dislikes must be brought into conformity with these observed uniformities which we call laws.

Now what about the people who have the family building ambition, and what about these people who have this other idea of pleasure which seems to interfere with that ambition, which class is likely to survive and prosper? Suppose we do as they used to do in the old spelling school, "choose" sides. We will get the two sides as nearly even as we can at the start. You start your community on the present ideals and I start mine on the family building ideal. Your community pursues this idea of pleasure, which means the development of expensive tastes which interfere with family building, and produces social classes among men and women. I succeed in getting my community to follow the other ambition, where every man and woman regards it as his or her largest ambition to build a successful family and let pleasure and all these other things become subsidiary to that. And suppose, further, that I could succeed in holding my community for a good many generations steadily to that ideal, and that you succeeded in holding your community for an equal number of generations steadily to your ideal. Which of our communities, at the end of a thousand years or more, would, in all probability, have wiped the other off the face of the earth? I think mine would. What will be, *will be*. If I am right then the fact that my community would be in existence and yours not, would be the final proof, it seems to me, of the superiority of this ideal over yours.

That brings us back to the question, what is the important thing? What do we want to economize in? Do we want to economize in these things that are essential to family building, turn them over to experts and to institutions in order that we may pursue culture or politics, or any of these other things? Or wouldn't it really be less suicidal even to turn politics or culture over to a few experts so that we could have more time to look after our families?

TEMPERATURE AND HUMIDITY IN CERTAIN NEW YORK HOSPITALS.

ALICE L. LAKE.

Department of Nursing and Health, Teachers College, Columbia University.

In spite of the general uncertainty which prevails in regard to many problems of ventilation, it is generally agreed that the maintenance of proper air conditions in respect to temperature and humidity is of prime importance. Careful determinations of the actual conditions in regard to temperature and humidity of hospitals, schools and factories equipped with various systems of ventilation, have, however, been very rare. At the suggestion of Prof. C. E. A. Winslow, and under his general direction, an attempt has been made by the writer to determine the conditions existing in the principal New York hospitals so far as was possible in the short time available.

Six hospitals designated, respectively, A, B, C, D, E, and F, were chosen for study and eight visits were made to them, some at night, during the period between November 14, 1912, and January 24, 1913. In hospitals A, C, and D, all the observations were made between 4 and 6 p.m. In hospital B some were made at that time and some between 11 p.m. and 2 a.m. In hospitals E and F the observations were made between 5 and 7 p.m. and 2 and 5 p.m. respectively. Temperature observations were made in the adults' ward, in the children's ward, and in the operating room, eight to seventeen observations being made on each visit. In the study of the relative humidity of the air 75 individual records were obtained of the percentage of saturation. Five sets of observations were made by means of the Quinn psychrometer and three sets by means of the standard U. S. Weather Bureau sling psychrometer. The heating and ventilating systems varied in the hospitals selected. The tables which summarize the observations show in each case the systems which were followed in the different hospitals.

The table which follows shows the number of times certain different temperatures were observed in the six hospitals, the temperature range under consideration being from 50° to 88°.

Distribution of temperature in six hospitals.

HOSPITAL AND WARD.	VENTILATING SYSTEM.	HEATING SYSTEM.	NUMBER OF TIMES FOLLOWING TEMPERATURES WERE OBSERVED:						
			50-54°	55-59°	60-64°	65-69°	70-74°	75-79°	80-88°
Adult's ward:									
Hospital A	Windows	Direct and indirect			5	6			
Hospital B	Exhaust	Direct	2	2	5	1	1		
Hospital C	Exhaust	Direct	1	1	3	1			
Hospital D	Plenum	Direct and indirect			1	3	1		
Hospital E	Exhaust	Direct					3	2	
Hospital F	Plenum	Direct			4	10			
Children's ward:									
Hospital A	Windows	Direct and indirect			2				
Hospital B	Exhaust	Direct		1		1		1	
Hospital C	Exhaust	Direct				1			
Hospital D	Plenum	Direct and indirect					2		
Hospital E	Exhaust	Direct					1		
Hospital F	Plenum	Direct				1	1		
Operating room:									
Hospital A	Windows	Direct and indirect					2	1	
Hospital B	Exhaust	Direct				1			
Hospital C	Exhaust	Direct					1		
Hospital D	Plenum	Direct and indirect					1	1	
Hospital E	Exhaust	Direct						2	2
Hospital F	Plenum	Direct				1			

The table below summarizes the observations on the humidity of the air in the six hospitals and shows the number of times different percentages of saturation were observed, the range being from 15 to 60 per cent.

Relative humidities in six hospitals.

HOSPITAL.	VENTILATING SYSTEM.	HEATING SYSTEM.	NUMBER OF TIMES PERCENTAGES OF SATURATION GIVEN BELOW WERE OBSERVED:							
			15-19%	20-24%	25-29%	30-34%	35-39%	40-44%	45-49%	50-60%
Hospital A	Windows	Direct and indirect	2	4	2	2		4	1	1
Hospital B	Exhaust	Direct	1	4	3	1	4	1		1
Hospital C	Exhaust	Direct	1	2	4	1				
Hospital D	Plenum	Direct and indirect			2	7				
Hospital E	Exhaust	Direct			2	8				
Hospital F	Plenum	Direct	1	2	8	2	3	1		

From the above statistics it appears that 47 out of 75 tests showed a temperature of 60° to 69°, while only 32, or less than half were between 65° and 69°; 4 had temperatures below 60°, of which 3 were taken at night and 1 was a roof ward; of the 24 above 70°, 10 were in operating rooms, 5 in children's wards, 5 in Hospital E, 1 in a closed room, 1 in an accident ward, and 2 in adult wards. Hospitals A and F were very uniform in temperature; B, C, and D (with the exceptions noted above) were also under control; E was overheated throughout (B with the same heating and ventilating systems was under control). The children's wards, with the exception of 2 in A, and 1 in B, were warmer than the other wards, varying from 67° to 76°. The operating rooms in use were from 71° to 88°, while those not in use (2) were down to the average.

It seems from these records that the control of temperature in a hospital is more a question of management than of the system employed. A uniform temperature was maintained in Hospital A with window ventilation alone and in Hospital F with a plenum system. Hospital C with air supplied by windows and exhausted by fans and Hospital D with a plenum system showed wide variations. Hospital E seems to be consistently overheated and although there are only 10 records, the impression of others who had visited this hospital corroborates the view that this condition is a general one. Temperatures between 79° and 80° such as are maintained in this hospital are certainly undesirable. The high temperatures in the children's wards and operating rooms of almost all of the hospitals are noteworthy. There is, of course, good reason for warm operating rooms but it seems questionable whether temperatures between 70° and 80° should be maintained in children's wards.

The night temperatures were taken in but one hospital, B. The children's ward here showed 57° with a day record of 76°. For the sake of those children who persist in sleeping uncovered, if for no other reason, such variations are undesirable.

The necessity for careful placing and regulating of thermostats is a point which should be kept in mind. One ward with hot radiators registered 76°. An operating room with a temperature of 88° registered 98° on the thermostat placed against a wall back of which were the steam pipes of the sterilizer in the adjoining room.

For humidity the maximum recorded was 54 per cent relative humidity and the minimum 16 per cent, both in A. On another day the same wards registered 44 per cent and 27 per cent respectively.

Operating rooms showed a very low humidity, corresponding to their high temperature, but one, and that not in use, registering over 24 per cent. Of the 12 operating room records, 5 were from 25 to 30 per cent, 6 were from 30 to 34 per cent, 1 was 40 per cent. Of the 75 total records taken, 67 were between 20 and 45 per cent.

As practically all of the hospitals rely to some extent on windows and transoms for fresh air and the outside humidity was from 38 to 76 per cent, there was necessarily a wide range inside. Is this an advantage to the sick or is it a disadvantage? Is it for the best good of patients to be subjected to such heat and dryness in operating rooms as is evidenced above? Or should steps be taken to install humidifying rooms in the ventilating systems, and to use plenum as well as exhaust fans for operating rooms at least, in order to control the humidity as well as the temperature? Only artificial humidification can solve this problem. Whether air supply is brought in through windows or through ducts the warming of the air to the temperature of the room has the same drying effect.

CAROLINE REST.

FRANCINA FREESE, R.N.

Caroline Rest, a home and school for mothers, maintained by the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, is located twenty miles from New York City in one of the most beautiful parts of the famed Westchester Hills. The grounds are spacious, and the building, opened in 1909, is well adapted to the work for which Caroline Rest was planned. The work began in 1907 in a small cottage which still stands on the grounds, and the new building was erected as soon as the experimental stage was over. It was built and endowed by Mr. George H. F. Schrader, now of Falmouth, England, as a memorial to his mother, Caroline Schrader, and bears her name.

Caroline Rest is under the management of the Fresh Air Department of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and its cases are chosen from applicants to their Relief Department, the Superintendent of Relief having sole control of the selections. The length of the stay is three weeks.

In specifying the aim of Caroline Rest, Mr. Schrader said, "The object is the restoration to health and strength of needy mothers

who have recently given birth to babies and who, or whose babies, seem likely to be thus restored by means of fresh air, nourishing food, and care." Consequently the work has been planned especially for mothers, but all kinds of cases are received. Children convalescing from acute illnesses are received alone, overworked young women and post-operative cases are welcomed, and we have even had one grandmother with her grandchild whose card bore the words "In need of instruction." The mothers may bring all the children they have and the husbands are invited to visit the Rest on Sunday and to take dinner with their wives.

Children over five are put in charge of nursemaids, sleep in a large well ventilated dormitory, and spend every pleasant moment out of doors. Children between two and five years of age are also in charge of a nursemaid. The mothers are required to assist the maid when food is served and at the bathing hour. Children under two are left absolutely in the mother's charge except at her meal times, and the class or lecture hour when the nurses take charge of them.

The "two-to-fivers" sleep in iron cribs placed beside the mother's bed. The infants are provided with basket beds and they too sleep in the mothers' dormitory.

The dormitories, all opening onto a large balcony, have five or six beds each. As all clothing worn at the Rest is provided there and the clothing worn to the Rest is locked away, the mothers need little room for their belongings other than the one drawer of the "built-in" dresser provided, where are kept soap, pins, toothbrush, etc. They must make their own beds and keep this one drawer in order.

The infants must be bathed the first thing after breakfast. Then comes the class in modified milk for all mothers whose infants are bottle fed. Immediately after this, nourishment in the form of milk or hot gruel is served for the mothers and while they are assembled for this the superintendent gives a short talk on one of the following subjects: infant feeding; advantages of breast feeding; proper food for the child after weaning; summer care of sick babies; cleanliness; fresh air; sunshine; food and drink, exercise and rest; common accidents of childhood; dangers of the "pacifier," good and bad nipples; and, a few contagious diseases and how to recognize them.

Lessons in sewing and cooking come in the afternoon, four classes in each week. For this work the mothers are divided into groups and the instruction is largely personal. If the garment made in the

sewing class is completed during the visit, the mother may have it, the child wearing it home.

The cooking work consists of instruction in the following: manner of purchasing foods and care of the same; care of cooked foods; some idea of a well balanced diet; variety in daily diet; hot and cold weather dishes; need of fruit; use of dried fruits and their preparation; milk, its value and ways of introducing it into the diet; and making of typical dishes to illustrate nutritive foods at low cost.

The work in sewing covers: the use of paper patterns; method of putting a garment together; hemming; adjustment of sleeves; finishing the bottom and neck of a garment; and button-holes and the sewing on of buttons.

Two evenings each week some little entertainment is furnished for the mothers, it may be dancing in the reception room, or music, or games, or the mothers may provide their own entertainment. They love to sing and a few of them play the piano. The infants are weighed weekly; the other children and the women at the beginning and at the end of the visit.

It is still a matter of debate whether instruction of these mothers is productive of the best results when given in the home or when given in a school of this sort.

The success of school instruction depends absolutely upon the way the "follow-up work" is done. If the women are led to believe that interest ceases when they are put aboard the train for home, and nothing is done for them until they report to the same agency for relief before the advent of the next baby, they will not profit much by their instruction in the school. They need help so that they may apply the principles taught in the school to their everyday lives; they will find points that have not been made clear to them and will want to ask questions. Without careful "follow-up work" the educational value of the work done at Caroline Rest is practically lost.

With such "follow-up work" carefully and conscientiously done, such schools as this cannot help being productive of great good. The stay in the country, the surroundings, and the care they receive restore the health, and without the responsibility of caring for the children every moment of the day and night, the mothers have more time to absorb what they are taught and to appreciate what is done for them.

THE NEED OF THE IMMIGRANT.¹

MABEL HYDE KITTREDGE.

Association of Housekeeping Centers, New York City.

The success of our effort toward solving the need of the immigrant depends entirely upon our knowledge of the men and women with whom we have to deal. We must realize that the education of these foreigners must keep pace with the larger ideas of living that the scientists and the social reformer are constantly working out. The well-meaning altruistic men and women of this country have been too content to decide what is best for the foreigner who comes to our shores, and then having decided and having worked out their knowledge into laws, wonder that the result is disappointment. Sitting around large mahogany desks, in skyscraper office buildings, many a committee has met to discuss the housing problem. In a recent report was given the result of such a committee meeting as follows: "To what extent," was asked, "are the tenants responsible for bad housing?" And the answer was, "They are not responsible at all, the man who owns the property is the responsible person."

Let us imagine making the owner responsible and putting the tenants one side as rent payers only, merely the recipients of such house improvements as the awakened conscience of the owner and law may create. Is the result satisfactory? The New York Tenement house department has worked for years for these better laws. From the committee room the fight has gone to Albany. "Our immigrants must have better homes," has been the splendid, passionate appeal of these men and women for years, and at last fight after fight has been won; fights for open plumbing, running water in each apartment, decent sinks, more space, 400 cubic feet of air to each person, all these measures have been adopted at Albany, and the committees meeting around the mahogany tables have rejoiced that at last the Italian, the Russian, the Pole, are to realize in some measure comfort and health. Have we considered the fact that these dazed people have no knowledge of how to use the comforts we are giving them?

¹ Presented at the Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Ithaca, 1913.

Only the other day I heard a visiting housekeeper of the Civic League for Immigrants tell how confused a Polish Jewess felt as she stood before one of these sanitary sinks; finally she took out the strainer and threw it away. "Why did you do that?" asked the visitor from the Civic League for Immigrants. "Because," answered Mrs. Milewsky, "the potato peelings wouldn't go down." Why should Mrs. Milewsky know what to do with modern plumbing? She was a peasant, and in her land the peasants throw dish water and potato peelings out of the front door. Such common implements as dust pans, such a common duty as how to sweep in a New York tenement, are new to our immigrants. They have been used to one-story cottages and stone floors. When they have cleaned house they have simply opened the door and swept out the dirt. I believe sometimes these people must long just to *see* once how it ought to be done when one lives on the sixth floor instead of in a cottage; how it ought to be done to please the housekeeper, the tenement house inspector, and the street cleaning department. They hate to be scolded by this army of people who seem to have their welfare at heart, but they have never seen just how the garbage can, the ash can, the refuse bag, are used. Telling? That is not enough to make them know. We have to have models put before us before we see clearly. Christianity itself had to give the world a model of a man; all the laws in the Bible could not make us know how to be perfect. An artist copies, copies, copies before he begins original work; a musician is filled with the good music that others have created before he thinks of writing one line of his own. Why do not we realize this same truth in the home-making, housing problem? Why should we think, for example, that the Ruthenians, filled with such superstitions as that a pregnant mother must not bathe, that if the top of a child's head is washed before the second birthday he will be bewitched, why should we think that such foreigners as these will appreciate and put to good use our bath tubs? We have to do more than put a bath tub in such a home. We have to make these people see the benefit of bathing, and the result of dirt.

Recently I visited Ellis Island. There was the Italian woman in her bright-colored shawl, yellow and pink handkerchief on her head, white stockings and short skirts. By now that dress is changed. A coat has taken the place of the shawl, the hair is up, the full short skirt has been exchanged for a tight one. Why? Because in her Sunday paper that Italian woman can see pictures of how she ought

to dress. A ride in the elevated, or the subway, and the immigrant man, be he ever so simple, can know what the American men wear, from underwear to the latest collar. These same people want a home to copy as well as garters and neckties.

I should like to begin this educational work on Ellis Island. I should like to have at least two model homes there; one a simply furnished tenement flat, the other the small one-family house. It would be something for these people to do while waiting, to study these homes, getting first vivid impressions and right ideas of the housing problem that is waiting for them. One million a year land in our country; six hundred and fifty thousand come through the port of New York; three hundred thousand stay in New York and go from Ellis Island to New York tenements. How dazed they must feel as they put their bundles down in a New York flat, with its blue walls, its small and probably dirty windows, and its tiny little rooms. How they must wonder what ought to be done with it, and how the living arrangements can be worked out. The Italian home across the hall will be the first pattern.

A home I know well is a fair sample: a four room flat, rent nineteen dollars, nine in family. It is furnished with cheap elaborateness, ideas gathered from Fourteenth Street stores because no other ideas were at hand. The chandelier is draped with tissue paper, the shelves are hung with ruffles and covered with paper napkins; over the doors are ruffles; around the bath tub the stiff white ruffle is hung. The beds of brass, with a picture of the Madonna inserted in the back, are covered with cheap lace and blue counterpanes, and on the wall of this house I counted over fifty picture post cards pinned into the plaster, and very dusty. In this, as in the home of every ambitious foreigner, is the plush parlor set. This family of nine has a boarder to help pay the rent. He is a night worker, and in the day time can always be seen asleep in one of the beds. All five children, after school, help the mother at flower making. They receive eight cents a gross for the flowers, and the tiny red leaves and yellow stamens are everywhere. There are windows enough, but they are tight shut. There is a bath tub, but the clothes wringer and last winter's sleds are always kept in it. This is not the home of a very poor family: the father earns twelve dollars a week, two girls are in a factory, and the flower making brings in a certain income. The trouble is they haven't been shown how a tenant may be responsible with the owner of the building to make this flat a sanitary, orderly place in which

to live. And so the home is over furnished and unhealthy, the children are growing up with wrong ideals, and the newly arrived immigrant across the hall has a bad model to copy.

Besides the Ellis Island model homes, I should like another such home in every neighborhood, and in this sample house instruction should be given every day and every evening. There are a few such models in New York, in the Association of Practical Housekeeping Centers. Here the American stove can be taken apart and studied, and those who have never used anything except wood are taught how to buy and use coal. Hygiene, sanitation, food values, are here studied in a natural way. Dinners are given, the foreign girls themselves making out the menus, doing the marketing (always with a teacher) and cooking; and in one lesson learning more about plumbing, dish washing, garbage cans, etc., than could be told to them with all the printed matter in the world.

Domestic scientists work out wonderful things in college laboratories, but it seems sometimes as if they were traveling one road and the immigrant woman the other, and that these two roads never meet. It is so easy to become absorbed in science and to feel that we have arrived when we discover that every child needs at least 1600 calories a day, and that if well-selected this nourishment can be bought for about twenty-one cents per person. It is so easy, on the other hand, to become confused, discouraged and nervous when one comes here "green," with no knowledge of English, and with philanthropists, inspectors and city officials constantly calling and only *telling* this poor dazed woman what is expected of her. If one has never *seen* how a thing ought to be done the telling means so little.

In the Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene held in Buffalo this August, every subject for the good of the people finds a place and is talked about. But so much of this knowledge is never understood by the people for whom it is intended; the health committees, the housing committees, the committees that have to do with oral hygiene, and school hygiene, and sex hygiene, and conservation of vision, of all these things they are ignorant. They have no standard to copy, and they misuse the advantages when they are put within their reach.

It seems as though we hand out our improvements to the immigrant, but we do not, so to speak, make him one of the committee. We do not even take the trouble to meet him and know him and

understand how to obtain his coöperation. We cannot give him what he is not ready to receive.

I have been interested lately in the work of the Bureau of Safety, Relief, Sanitation and Welfare of the United States Steel Corporation. They spent last year \$5,450,000 in improving the condition of the workmen and on safety devices. "But we saved," said the secretary of the Sanitation Committee to me, "7000 lives;" and when I asked him why he did this, he answered, "Because it is good business." I suppose there is no welfare work which is more intelligently done than this. They have so clearly grasped the realization that only as the immigrant coöperates can any appreciable good be accomplished. The one thing this Steel Corporation wants to do is to save their workmen's lives.

They first undertook to make perfectly safe their great plant employing thousands of men. Every dangerous wheel was covered, safeguards were everywhere, safety precepts were printed in seven languages, such precepts as these:

Remember it is better to cause delay than an accident

Let every employee make himself a committee of one to prevent some one accident

Safety—Think before you act

Do not work with unsafe tools

Safety committees may overlook something—See for yourself that all is safe

Notice Danger signs

Careful men are usually efficient—careless men are not

Do not fool with electricity—it is dangerous

Look out for overhead loads

Look out for signs

Every sign means danger

Stop, look, listen

and so on with at least thirty more precepts. And yet men were hurt, accidents occurred, valuable workmen were lost and families were left without support. I heard a mining capitalist say once that after all in this line had been done, he stopped his welfare work, and at once his men began to disregard warnings and accidents became frequent again.

But the Welfare Bureau of the Steel Corporation realized it must go on and find out the root of the trouble. It must go on until the immigrant workman himself would help the Bureau in protecting his own life. They studied the mind of the strong, fearless foreigner,

and discovered that it was considered the manly thing to jump on freight cars while in motion, that it was a sign of fear to wait for the car to stop. It was the ethics of these men to be careless of overhead loads and safety devices. Every man who was half a man was not going to be afraid of getting hurt. This spirit was too strong in the men for any Bureau to talk down, the wives must be made to help. Moving pictures were therefore introduced, showing vividly accidents occurring from carelessness. The women saw in these moving pictures the machinery and its dangers, they saw the dangers of electricity and the horrors that came from disregarding the warnings of the company. "We wanted one thing from these pictures," the secretary explained, "we wanted to make the women see so that they would warn their husbands each morning as they left home. The wife of a man has a power that we haven't." With all the precautions taken by this great corporation, hundreds were injured every year.

Miss Ida Tarbell, in a recent letter on this subject says: "Studying these accidents, the man in charge concluded that the cause lay outside of the shop. It lay in the fact that the men had not had proper food and comfort at home. They started out on their day's work unfit to protect themselves." Back, you see, to the immigrant's home. And so model homes are being established everywhere by the Welfare Department of the Steel Corporation, and the instruction of the women is a part of the welfare work. Not because these steel men are philanthropists, but because it is good business to save the life of the workman who has learned his trade; it is good business to keep him healthy, and all the power and all the money of the Steel Corporation cannot do this without the help of the women.

How much better these women would work, what a dignity it would give their labor, if they could only realize that no business in this world can succeed without their coöperation. Home duties are not mere duties in the background any longer. Each one is a means to an end; every move is of importance, the way the dishes are washed, the beds made, the dinner cooked, may win or lose the game.

In a recent report of the National Housing Association it was a cause for congratulation that "At the first Conference the vast majority of the delegates were health officers and social workers whose duty had forced them to see the awful results of bad housing; at the second Conference, newcomers were largely representatives of business corporations, manufacturers, architects, builders. The vital importance of good housing has begun to impress those whose interest is excited

by practical proposals." Surely these practical people will soon realize that there is a vital importance in still further increasing this representative gathering. It must include those who live in the houses. These foreign people know, after they have been here a while, the harm done by bad housing conditions. We cannot work out the housing problem without first getting help from the men and women who know by experience. They are more interested in the law that requires a sleeping room to be no smaller than 6 by 10 than the architect or health officer can possibly be. They have seen girls go wrong because of the lack of privacy in these small rooms. The immigrant wants just what we want: a decent home for his family, a healthy home and purity for his girls, and if we will only take the trouble to know him better, then take the trouble to show him, his wife and his daughters what ought to be, they will all help us to get it. We need the foreigner to build our subways and our skyscrapers, but we need the foreigner's wife and children to help us in working out the science of the home. They care enough, but do not know enough, and the fact that they do not know enough is our fault.

Of course the real need for the immigrant is education, and we all know that education is most successful when given to children. A most interesting address was given recently on the subject of education by one who showed in every word that he looked far into the future, and in saying what I do now about education I shall more or less quote from this speaker.

Education must give general efficiency, and if we can get that efficiency we have succeeded in educating the child; but surely if, after eight years of teaching, we have an inefficient child, if we have a negative rather than a positive personality, we have failed in what we have undertaken to do. If, when a boy leaves school, he is not able to go into business and after a few years, is not able to support at least himself and three others, we have failed to give that boy in school the elements of education that he needs in order to live his life. For if a man is not able to support himself, a wife, and at least two children, there is certainly a lack somewhere.

Our children in the public schools should be taught to read the newspapers intelligently, and how many of them can? In order to read the newspapers they must know something about the politics of other countries, they must know intelligently the politics of this country, they must understand references to historical events, and they must know about laws and what it means to keep and break a law. If we

are going to pretend to educate children we must educate them in health and that means cheerfulness. If a boy and a girl are to be made efficient to meet life they must be made healthy, and we cannot make them healthy except by education in the things that make for health.

The School Lunch Committee of New York City, of which I am the chairman, next year will serve luncheons in seventeen public schools. We shall be feeding daily probably five or six thousand children. This is good as far as it goes, but this is not education, and this work has no lasting effect unless the child's mind is trained in the subject of food, food values, cooking of food and cleanliness, at the time he is being fed. It is all very well to work out on paper the menus which will give each child the needed amount of protein, fat and carbohydrate, but unless we are changing at the same time the living conditions of that child, the effect of that one meal will be over in a few hours and will be hardly worth the trouble it took to cook it. I believe that this educational work can go on at the same time that the luncheons are served. For example, the luncheons can be prepared by the school children, the details of preparation given by the domestic science teacher; the menu of every lunch given in every school should be on the black board of each school; the food values and the price of each dish given and explained to the children. As it is now, a child is given pea soup. It learns to like this kind of soup. It is not taught the food value of peas, and how these can be substituted for meat when the price of meat is impossible. A girl is not even told how pea soup is made so that she can go home and explain to her mother that she had a good soup at school and wants it at home. At the present time when we ask that the girls in our public schools help in the preparation of the food so that the educational advantage can be theirs, we are told that time cannot be spared from lessons. In other words, it is more important for a girl to learn her geography lesson and lose her health than it is to learn how to cook and how to change the living conditions of herself and her family.

It seems that we constantly forget the one point that we are trying to make our children generally efficient citizens, and that health makes for general efficiency more than anything else, that homemaking makes for health, and that good cooking with careful preparation of food and ideas of order mean good homemaking. If our children are to have the right ideas of life they must be educated in our public schools to use their hands more, they must have some

respect for manual labor. You know the story of a man who was out of a job and, apparently, sincere in his desire to work. He went to a friend and said he was willing to do anything. He was asked if he could use a pick and shovel, and he replied that he could not. He was asked if he could use a hammer and saw, and he replied in a surprised tone, "No, I am an educated man, I have been through college." That is exactly the idea that is constantly being made apparent. A girl came to me only the other day who had been accustomed to using her hands but who had gotten the false idea of education, and with no prospect of other work, had thrown up her present job and had come to me to say that she was made for better things than working with her hands.

Our public schools must teach the children of the immigrant that there is nothing in the world finer than to be able to use one's hands efficiently. Scrubbing, cleaning, dish washing, carpentry work, all these things should have first place in the school curriculum, and they should also have the first place of respect in the mind of each child. Experience shows clearly that this is possible. For twelve years, in New York, I have been teaching housework to the children of immigrants. Some of those girls have married principals of our public schools, many have married well-to-do business men, but not one has lost her respect for housework.

It has interested me to read Professor Scudder's account of his idea of efficiency, and for what he gave diplomas in his school. For example, he said he had one girl who could not learn algebra, she did not have a mathematical mind; but she could cook a dinner for ten people for one dollar and get into that dinner all the required nourishment. He gave credit for her knowledge of cooking in place of her lack of algebra. Another girl in his school was a very poor speller. If she were relying on marks in spelling she could not get her diploma, but he believed, as he believes in all cases, that she might be able to prove her efficiency in other ways. She did. This poor speller could go out in the woods after a rain storm and make a fire with wet wood and cook a dinner perfectly. She also, from being a delicate, moody girl, had made herself into a healthy, cheerful girl, by her study of dietetics and by teaching herself to sleep in the open air winter and summer. Surely Professor Scudder was right when he said that this girl, who by her own effort had grown healthy, was more deserving of a diploma than if she had learned to spell and continued to be a weak negative individual.

Anyone who has worked very much with the little children of the street knows how few are affirmative characters and how many are negative. Their whole habit of mind is negative. There is so little in our school training that teaches boys and girls what to do when they are up against something hard. In school they seem part of the big machine; at home they have very little chance to develop their individuality. The homes are small, the families are large, and one gets discouraged in trying to do more than just get along; and to just get along means doing what the crowd wants to do. When these boys and girls go into factories, again each becomes part of a big machine; one girl makes the collar of a coat, another girl makes the button holes, another girl takes out the bastings, no girl ever makes the whole coat or feels the least interest whether at the end the coat is satisfactory or not.

It seems as if the business world must always be this impersonal kind of a machine, but surely we can put something more vital into our public schools. There we have the youth, there we have the enthusiasm of childhood, there we have all the wonderful energy that loves to clean and scrub and work hard. It is just as natural for every little girl to want to keep house as it is for every little boy to want to use a hammer and saw, and when we put these little girls down at the school desk and teach them that education means not using that love of homemaking but "learning the book through," we lose after a few years this wonderful force, and when, after a time the homemaking must come, it is taken up as a drudgery and not a pleasure. It seems, sometimes, as though the natural things immigrant children want to do are really the right things. They want to play, and in their play they want to use their imagination. If we would only make this possible, it seems as if we should do more than we do now with some of our lesson books. The boys want to make things, the girls want to cook, the little girls want to play at being mother, the little boys want to use the strength of their hands and the strength of their muscles. All these things, if directed, make for efficiency. Could we not get some of this vital force of childhood into our public schools?

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.¹

SARAH LOUISE ARNOLD.

You have given me great pleasure this week, the opportunity of taking hold of hands with you, of learning about the work which you have been doing, of looking into your faces and sharing your enthusiasm. We all are feeling that it is good for us to be here.

Tonight I shall speak particularly to the younger members of our Association—to you who are entering upon your life work. You are discovering and weighing the results of our earlier efforts. You, we trust, will succeed where we have failed, will build upon our foundations, will reach the Promised Land which we have dimly seen, afar off. Our hope is in you.

And first, as my text, let me recite to you the familiar lines from Emerson:

Daughters of Time, the hypocritic days,
Muffled and dumb, like barefoot dervishes,
And marching single in an endless file,
Bear diadems and fagots in their hands.
To each they offer gifts after his will,
Bread, kingdoms, stars, and skies that hold them all.

Education is intended to teach us, among other things, to choose between the thing which is worth while and that other thing which is better worth while. These are sad hours when

I, in my pleachéd garden, saw the pomp,
Forgot my morning wishes, hastily
Seized a few herbs and apples; and the Day
Turned and departed, silent. I, too late,
Under her solemn fillet saw the scorn.
We sit down at set of sun
To count the things which we have done,
And, counting, find—

the cheapness, the littleness of our choice. Any backward glance will show us the meagerness of our earlier understanding. The great

¹Delivered at the Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Ithaca, 1913.

tragedy of human existence is the bartering of the birthright for the mess of pottage. Yet this tragedy is constantly being enacted, unless we see far and wide, back into the past, forward into the future. We desire and pray to be so blest with vision and understanding that we may choose the precious gifts borne by the marching Days, and secure in our own lives the goods which we wish to bestow upon others.

I hold in my hand the Syllabus of Home Economics that has been prepared for us. I regard it with great respect and appreciation. It recites our definition of home economics. The book is filled, as you know, with very carefully assorted and classified subjects of study, each arranged under its proper head. Our definition outlines the subjects of instruction which belong to us who are concerned with the food, clothing and shelter of the human race.

I want to say to you that we are not only concerned in the subjects of instruction, but we are also concerned in the application of that which we teach in our American homes. We are immensely concerned, therefore, to teach the right thing and in the best possible way. To that end we should know more than we teach, in order that everything that we teach should be seen in its perfect perspective. You and I must know and understand the life in the home.

A few days ago I talked with one of the ablest physicians that the country knows. He has been particularly known of recent years because he has devised the following up of the patients after they leave the hospital, to see that they really find their way to recovery. Now we all know that the hospital was designed to make people well, but we also know that the physician is supposed to discharge his patient when he crosses the threshold of the hospital and goes home. This physician was a philosopher; he had always been sorry that his chosen profession of medicine seemed to find no place for the application of philosophy, no chance to discern what life was meaning to the patient, and what all his experiences were for. All at once it came to him that as a physician he could not succeed except as he understood the daily life of his patient. So he went home with the poor man who had been in the hospital for weeks, perhaps having some capital operation, weak and frail, and hopeless, sick and miserable, even when he left the hospital. He went home to the family that had been without income for months; he saw the children there, clinging to the skirts of the mother, as hopeless and downhearted as the sick father who was coming home. And then, instead of simply saying to the man, "Take so many eggs every day, and drink so much milk,


and go to some place where you will have absolutely fresh air and rest for a few weeks," he found somebody who concerned himself in the interests of the family. He learned how really to make that man well; he discovered that it was not all a question of diet or medicine, not a question of diagnosis, not a question of mere physical recovery. He had to learn much before he could rightly diagnose his patient's case or prescribe the possible remedy.

Now, home economics, like medicine, exists not alone by itself, but it is related to something else. We teach home economics, not simply because the subject is interesting and good in itself, but because it is vitally related to human welfare. You and I will amount to very little in our discussion of home economics and in our study of the cause, if we sit at our library table to prosecute our inquiries and make our tabulations, and separate our thought from the daily experience of the home with all its tremendous needs.

So the question that I really want to put before us this evening is this: What is the human appeal in home economics? Why are we here at all? From what experience have we come? How is the thing which we get here going to help somebody else? What sorts of persons are we to help, and how are we to help them? What human need shall we find crying for relief? What must we know besides our subject if we are really to be of use doing our work? What does home economics mean to you? Why are you studying it, and how do you expect the world to be even a least little bit better because you have undertaken that work?

I want to suggest to you, first, that your understanding of home economics is dependent, and absolutely dependent, upon your home experience. We represent here, perhaps, typical groups of American homes, those which provide the finest opportunity to the children who are trained in them. For they doubtless represent homes in which the children have shared in the family responsibilities, they have not been left to the care of servants, neither have they known extreme want. These homes have been homes of intelligence, of truth, of loyalty, where the working hand in hand with mother and father, sister and brother has developed the virtues which belong to our American people.

Now, out of that home has come an indispensable teaching, which is the bed rock of all our education. Only as we have known this teaching shall we be able to interpret rightly the lives of others, coming from widely differing homes. If you know through your own experi-



ence all that goes to make up the abundant life of the home, you will be able to teach it to others. Without that experience you will go halting, stumbling, and will fail to reach your goal. I knew a young teacher who said that Tennyson wrote nonsense when he wrote the song of the brook, "for every fool knows that a brook cannot sing." Upon inquiry I learned that she lived on a Dakota prairie, that she had never sat beside a brown mountain brook as it leaped over the rocks and sang as it fell. The brook was not in her life—therefore, she could not hear it sing in the poem.

A friend has told me of her early experience in her home on a Maine farm, how once a year the mother laid aside her heavy cares, let the men eat a cold dinner, and took all the children to the hills where they might together share the joys of a day out of doors. That same mother, early one June morning, waked her little girl, so that she might go with her at sunrise out under the pines on the hillside to hear the thrushes sing. "I shall never forget that morning," said the child. "We listened there under the pines to the song of the thrushes and it seemed to me that the very doors of heaven were opened for me by my mother."

No such gift could come into the life of the child except as the mother opened the door. The mother with the seeing eye and the understanding heart shared with her children her vision of things which were true and beautiful. You and I came out of homes like that. Our understanding of human life and experience is largely built upon the patterns that were set for us in the home.

When, therefore, you and I discuss home economics, we are constantly measuring life by our experience. We are thinking of things in the terms of that experience, and we expect the children with whom we deal to come out of a similar experience. But let us stop to think.

Turn to the tenement house and see what it has to bestow upon its child. I once visited a school in a large city, not in the poorest district, and noted with interest a little pale-faced girl who was keenly intent upon her work. "Come, Mary," said the teacher, "let us see your slate." The child came slowly to the desk, a white-faced little girl, with tangled pigtailed tied with cotton rags, her dress hanging in strings, her shoes loosely tied and ill-fitting at best. Around her neck, on a twisted, torn cotton string hung a key. As I looked at the slate, I asked about the key. "It is the key to my house," said Mary. "I wear it all the time. My mother, she goes out washing. She isn't there when I wake up in the morning, and there is no one in the

house at noon. So I don't go home at noon, and I let myself in at night with this key."

The fire out, the cold meal set on the stove hearth, no light in the crowded room, no mother to hear the little feet as they mounted the stairs! Imagine the tiny tot, climbing those four flights to the cold, dark, lonely room, to wait for her mother. I thought as I looked in the child's face, "How little I know of experiences like hers! How much I should have to learn before I could teach her as I ought!"

May it not be possible, then, that when we are teaching such children, and those whose experience is far more pitiable, we are speaking a foreign language, that we cannot teach them except as we understand their experience? Our words are filled with content by the things which we have known. Their knowledge has been of a different sort.

At the South Station in Boston the other day I saw a large group of mothers, young and old, with gay handkerchiefs on their heads, freshly scrubbed dark faces, children gathered close to them, a few bags or squares of brown cotton, holding their earthly possessions, having no converse with those about them. They were strangers in a strange land, having come out of a strange experience into the new country with its curiously different ways. You and I have much to learn before we can teach home economics to these children, can really make them understand the American home. We must first learn to understand the human experience out of which these children have come.

I am glad to point to the fine and sturdy work which is being done here at Cornell University. This morning I attended a conference which Miss Van Rensselaer was conducting, dealing with the actual life of the rural home. The teachers who gathered at this conference were discussing real conditions. They know the life of the farmer's wife, bringing her water from the distant well to do the family washing, feeding the men who came to do the haying, caring for the milk and butter, taking a hand in the stress of farm work, rearing the children, doing the sewing, the washing, the ironing, serving as nurse, and often as physician. How essential that the one who helps the home on the farm should understand the home on the farm! When the home economics train goes out from Cornell into the farming district, it carries not only books and charts, illustrations for the demonstration lecture, but it carries women who know the life of the farmer and desire with all their hearts to help the earnest women there to lift their "better up to best."

Turn away from the farm to the fresh new apartment house in the

city street, six, seven, eight, nine, ten stories high, scant of space, with no inch of foot room outside, each door opening from halls where one may meet strangers—and you have another problem of the American home. How shall one who knows only the life of the generous country house, with its ample space and its abundant provision for all human needs, understand the problems of the apartment dweller?

Here, under our eyes, is the birthright exchanged for the mess of pottage. Follow the apartment house children through the next generation and the next, migrating from one “flat” to another, as soon as the paper is torn from the wall, having no permanency of association, no room for play, no sense of belonging, taking no root anywhere, and you will all at once confront a problem which has ceased to be personal; it is civic. It concerns us all. For through the apartment we are losing out the stuff of which the American home has been built.

Again turn to the city, and enter the lodging house, which cannot be called a home, yet which shelters, merely shelters, numberless girls and boys who have come from the country home, lured by the so-called advantages of the city. On every side of this land we shall find homeless boys and homeless girls who have drifted in from the country with the illusion that they are to attain in the city the thing called education. When shall we have learned that education is bigger than the school? When shall we have learned that we cannot hand over instruction in music, mathematics, and what not, making no provision for the life which is more than meat? Shall we not find just here that again we have bartered the birthright for the mess of pottage, seized the few herbs and apples instead of the kingdom which might have been ours? Yet this thing is being done over and over again by the thousands of girls who go to Boston, New York, or Chicago as students, lodging themselves in a hall bedroom, taking their meals in a restaurant, or cooking their potatoes or their coffee over the gas in their rooms, without the conveniences involved in laundry and the common home table, giving essentially precious things for the new and often bitter experience in the city. You and I are living in the city and seeing it going on, and yet are not knowing what is happening. These girls with their shining faces, coming from their country homes and knowing so little about city life, will write back to their fathers and mothers that they have “found a home.” What is home economics doing to make life right for these girls under urban conditions?

And shall we forget the thousands upon thousands of homeless and motherless children who are cared for in the institutions called

"Homes?" I saw recently a printed appeal to give money for something. The person who sent it was cunning enough to strike at once to the heart of the reader, for on the cover of the appeal was the photograph of a motherless family, a little girl of about twelve years, holding a baby in her arms with other little ones grouped around her. This little mother-sister was mothering all the babies of the group clustered about her. Abbott Thayer, in his well known picture called "Caritas," in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, represents a woman with arms extended, sheltering on each side a child clinging to her flowing robes. Her own child on the one hand, looking so confidently up to her, and the other, the wistful waif, who half fears and yet wholly knows that because she is the mother she has love and protection, not for her own alone, but for all who need her.

Shall not home economics, then, discover how best to provide a home for these motherless boys and girls? Can our work be complete before they have secured their real rights?

For the time being we must give instruction in home economics through the school. This is because the school, as the agent of the community, must help the children where they most need help; and just in proportion as the home is meager or limited the school must contribute the instruction which the home should have given.

It seems clear to me that for the time being we have a double mission to perform. The little girl from the tenement home, who wore the rusty key about her neck, must somehow learn what a home may mean, or her own children will be born into a home of the type of that from which she comes. First, then, we must teach the children of today so that they will be enabled to bestow upon their children a home of a finer type than that from which they have come. Our work will not be complete until this instruction is handed back to the homes. Let us hope that it is only for the time being that the schools must carry this responsibility. We are dealing now with a transition period. We should look forward to the day when, through the help which home economics can give, the home will resume its rightful function and give to its children the fundamental teaching of which we have spoken. Let us do all that we can to reënforce the poor and meager homes until there shall be no poor and meager homes amongst us. The poor bewildered mothers in the tenement houses or upon the farms must be helped where they need help today. Their children should be so taught that their homes will be more happy, more wholesome, and more efficient than their mothers' homes have been.

Now this cannot be done unless we see our schools from a different angle. We must think of education as a preparation for life. A part of this preparation may come from the book, another part must come through experience, through training. If the home does not give the appropriate training the school must temporarily take its place. We must insist that a liberal education should secure as one element the knowledge and power which make it possible for the youth to fulfil his responsibility in the home. Exactly as we now say to the boy, "Unless you can read you cannot vote; you must remain in school until you have this power," we should say to the girl, "You cannot undertake the responsibilities of home-making and home-keeping until you are prepared to carry them. You cannot leave school until you have at least secured the elements of this training. If from your own home you have received this instruction, well and good. If not, you must come to us to be taught; so that in your home the community will find the essentials of the American home. We shall not be satisfied if your children are sewed into their clothes to stay there from November until June; we shall not be satisfied if your back door spreads disease through the neighborhood; we shall not be satisfied if all of your children die in infancy because you have not learned how to feed and house them. For your sake and for our sakes, you must secure this instruction."

The time will come and come soon, when we shall be absolutely sure that the sanity and safety of our state institutions depends upon the sanity and safety of our homes. Then the state will say to all of its girls, "Your life does not belong to yourself as an individual; it belongs to all of us, all together. We need you at your best; we need you to be wise and strong and good, for the sake of all of us. You have a great contribution to make to the general welfare and the common good."

By that time the college will reflect and will say, "I, too, will help; I will let no girl go out of my doors who does not see with the utmost seriousness that she has responsibilities, not only for the care of herself, but for the care of others. I will see that she is so wisely taught and so carefully reared that she will clearly recognize her chief duty, her highest opportunity, the opportunity in which her greatest privilege abides. She will learn through her teaching how essential is the wise, well-trained, and great-hearted mother, who is able to meet the responsibilities of wifehood and motherhood, and in whom her children may safely trust."

We shall learn, by and by, that the mastery of the problems of the home is one of the tests of the liberal education.

Not long ago, in Chicago, having lost my train, I went, in the free hour gained thereby, to look at pictures. I stood for an hour before a picture which I shall never forget—a marsh, across which a dike led toward a distant knoll. It was twilight. Dimly seen under the great willow tree by the knoll was a low, brown house. A man bent under a heavy load, was making his way across the dike. Low in the twilight sky a star was shining. In the window of the little brown house under the tree, a light burned clearly.

I love to remember the picture, and to think that just as surely as the mariner on the sea sends his bark safely across the waves to the haven because of that star in the sky, just so surely these boys and girls of ours will at last reach the desired haven because of that very light in the window of the home.

EDITORIALS.

The new volume of the Woman's Who's Who in America is gathering into its net the names of women who shall be considered representative. What are the requirements? A college degree makes a very good start off; next in order comes some record of literary effort, no matter how feeble; to have appeared on the printed page is all important. Next to literary prowess ranks activity on boards of charity, civic leagues, etc., while membership in all manner of societies with official positions therein, brings up the rear. But in this list of achievements there is a significant omission; no mention is found of the ancient and honorable profession of homemaking!

The leisure that has come to women of the well-to-do classes in this generation has enabled great numbers of them, those of average as well as those of more than average ability, to take part in the world of affairs, especially in unpaid social service, and in most cases this has been greatly to the advantage of the community. The daily press, the magazines, biographical and obituary notices, are quick to notice and record these public aspects of the life of the interesting sex whose doings a generation ago were very little open to the eyes of men. Now are we to conclude that women have suddenly become valuable to the world; that these women, singled out as great or near-great, are the superiors of their mothers and grandmothers and of their sisters of this generation who are wholly concerned with the home?

It is easy to say that everyone knows the value of the wife and mother, that it is a primal fact, that it goes without saying. By no means. We live in a time of unsettled standards, of constant readjustment of values. The young, especially, are greatly influenced in their choice of a career and their later satisfaction in it by the honor in which it seems to be held.

Has "she who looketh well to the ways of her household" come to be infected with the prevalent unrest? Yes, and with some reason. Her grandmother's life was much more toilsome and monotonous than is hers, but it was the life of *all women whom she knew*, she had no friends who were living "the wider life," there were no tantalizing visions of the part she might play in the great world.

Now all is changed. A woman writes from a country village: "Sister Sarah is working in New York among Italians for the S. P. C. C., she writes such interesting letters. But don't expect anything from me, it's the same old round, the housework and the children." One can read between the lines the longing and the bitterness, and yet this is a woman of the well-to-do classes, one who can look into the sweetly serious eyes of a child, her own child, and help a man to his career and his happiness. As the world goes she is a fortunate person and has a great opportunity. Such women are like the dwellers in the Happy Valley of whom the poet vainly enquired the way. "Where is the road to Arcady?" They shake their heads, they live in Arcady and know it not. But if they know it not, if the lovely hills that enclose their Valley seem a prison, there is a reason and an explanation, and what is it?

There are, it is true, great hearted women whose eyes are not holden, who see the possibilities and the blessings of such a lot, who have drunk from the deep primal springs of human life, who, because of their experience, can feel themselves akin to "the mighty toiling women of the past" on whom our civilization has been built. And now and then the ideality of youth reveals to us the very core of the truth. A little twelve-year-old Italian girl was waiting with her tiny charge for a street-car transfer. "Isn't the baby heavy?" asked a stranger. With an ineffable look at the dark head cuddled in her neck, she replied, "Oh, he's not heavy; Tony's my brother!"

But all the same, Tony is too heavy for the little mother and for the big mother as well, notwithstanding their love. While we see no abatement in the praise of the home as the greatest institution of society, "the unit measure on which the state has been built from the earliest times," yet there is too much truth in the remark made by the mother of four unusually fine children that the man and woman who undertake to raise a family are penalized on every side. Even the happiness of the home circle does not always repay for sacrifices that stunt the mother's development and prevent the father's advancement in his profession. They have made a supreme gift to the community in these well-endowed and well-trained young citizens, but if the man's powers have been crippled by lack of vacation or extra study since the money must go for the little shoes and coats, he is as relentlessly dropped to a lower rung of the ladder in his calling as if his earnings had been spent on bachelor luxuries; and when the mother of the family goes out among other women she has a staunch heart indeed if no

regrets arise at failure to meet the prevailing standards as to dress, conversational agility, and public renown in the clubs.

Society is not paying its debt to the woman of the household. Help should flow through the various channels and flow freely. Will such help make the task of the homemaker too easy? Whatever the educational and social helps offered her, it is still she who must choose, utilize, coördinate; it is she alone who must create the atmosphere in which immortal souls are to grow and bloom.

And not until full help and sympathy is offered her will she see her great opportunity and happily meet it.

The June meeting at Cornell University was a notable one: first, because of our hosts whose hospitality was unbounded. The new Home Economics building was placed at our disposal; Sage College housed our members; Dean **The Cornell Meeting.** Bailey, of the College of Agriculture, welcomed us and spoke twice for us; Acting President Crane gave us an address of welcome and presided on Wednesday evening; Ex-President Andrew D. White twice spoke for us, and ended our deliberations on July the Fourth by an address at the raising of the flag.

Miss Van Rensselaer and Miss Rose were everywhere and always providing for our comfort and convenience. Behind us and around us everywhere was the evidence of their strong wholesome work. We cannot thank them enough for the countless services they rendered us.

Again the environment gave us perspective. The noble University, the hospitable College of Agriculture, the prosperous Department of Home Economics, reënforced and encouraged us.

Then, further, the attendance was large. From north, east, south and west our members came, 243 of them. They came early and stayed through. They did take hold of hands. They were devoted and enthusiastic and "they helped every one his neighbor."

Then Mrs. Dewey and Mrs. Abel came and stayed. Mrs. Abel presented the need of a housewives' department in the JOURNAL, but said she could not undertake to edit it without the assurance of a year's contributions plus \$500 for expenses. In one day the \$500 was pledged for our work. *Our JOURNAL, if you please.*

Then the program showed us the reach of home economics. We saw something of the reach of our domain. The speakers showed us home economics as taught and applied on the farm, in the tenement, by

the district visitor, or the trained nurse. The Institution showed us how it studied its problems, and the teacher displayed hers. Many said, "I had not realized how far our work reaches."

And then we had a good secretary who was untiring and the help of those who have never failed us yet, and many new young members, and the representatives of the homes. President Vincent generously helped us by his stirring address, and Professor Carver led us straight to fundamental doctrine in his address on "The Family."

Those who could be there came away with glad and helpful memories. Let us do as well or better next year. Come one, come all.

The Editorial Board wishes to call attention to the advertising section of the JOURNAL, with the suggestion that the firms advertising be given an opportunity when goods are purchased.

Journal The JOURNAL undertakes to restrict its advertising
Advertise- matter to products of known quality, and believes
ments. that it will be of assistance to teachers and house-keepers if it is recognized that the standard in this matter is as high as in all other things. It is a rule of business to mention the JOURNAL in writing to advertisers.

The illness of some of those who had been counted upon to co-operate and help has hindered the rapid progress which was expected. Nevertheless the plans for the house-keepers' section of the JOURNAL are being perfected. At the earliest possible date the section will be started. All who have promised to contribute material are urged to send it to the editor as soon as possible. All who have suggestions to make are reminded that they will be welcome. The cordial support of home economics' workers is needed to insure the success of the new project.

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BOOKS AND LITERATURE

Any books or periodicals mentioned in this department may be obtained through the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS at the price listed.

Food and Flavor. By Henry T. Finck. New York: The Century Company. \$2. By mail of the Journal, \$2.16.

Why is the acute observer of food customs in different lands, the critic of kitchen pedantry, the zealous conservator of food resources, always a man? Brillat de Savarin, to begin no farther back, is the type, he whose charming essays and *Physiologie du Gout*, make the mouth water; Count Rumford who introduced the potato to Germany and evolved the kitchen range; Sir Henry Thompson who has enriched our culinary literature with his book, *Food and Feeding*; Edward Atkinson who gave us our first type of fireless cooker, are all examples. One of the latest books in this line is Mr. Finck's *Food and Flavor* which is announced as "A gastro-nomic guide to health, wealth and wholesome pleasures," thus striking at once the note of humorous extravagance always found in these authors.

Mr. Finck holds that we are obsessed with the one idea of nutriment in our food, disregarding the extreme importance which he believes should be assigned to its savoriness and the effect of enjoyment in eating on the flow of the digestive fluids. He arraigns this country under the heading "Ungastronomic America," averring that we have low standards as to quality in food materials, that we do not demand and therefore do not get fresh vegetables and fruits and prime meats; that we do not realize the importance in flavor however low in nutrient content in order to vary the cheap basic foods of which the diet must be composed. His views on cold storage fowls, fish, oysters "fattened" in brackish water, ham preserved in "liquid smoke," are vigorously expressed. He calls loudly for a halt in the present destruction of our shell-fish by discharging sewage into rivers and harbors, and urges that our lakes and ponds be stocked with fish and our parks with deer and that they be fed and protected as they are in Germany.

As to the poor cooking found everywhere in our country he charges it to lack of interest and sentiment and considers it as disgraceful as a crude taste in music or painting. He fully believes that every housewife should master the art whether to teach or to practice it because it is too important to be trusted to incapable hands or to wholesale methods. He overlooks the fact, however, that the average home cook in America does with flour and similar cereal products the kind of thing that only the first-class cook, as a rule, attempts in so many other countries. As a proof of her success witness the corn bread, spoon bread, beaten biscuits, popovers, biscuit, bread, rolls, cakes and so on. They compare favorably with the kind of thing the foreign professional cook can make and many of them are finding their place in the classics of cookery.

This interesting book is one of the few that gives full and extended praise to the work done by our Department of Agriculture in its Farmers' Bulletins devoted to food and its preparation, but from the standpoint of the student the book is somewhat marred by a false idea of relative values as to food nutrients.

Increasing Home Efficiency. By Martha Bensley Bruère and Robert W. Bruère. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1912. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.

"The budget is to the housekeeper what a set of blue prints is to the builder." At last we have a book devoted to the "middle class" housekeeper and her problems. Such a book as this would not have been written even five years ago, for it is significant of a new home building that a book on efficiency contains not a single cooking recipe, and we do get much information about income and expenditures, of trusts and pensions.

The basis of efficiency is found just where it has always resided, not in the wonderful skill of the housekeeper but in the wages of the "breadwinner." Dr. Chapin's estimate of \$900 for "decency" is raised to \$1000 and a budget of \$1200 is pronounced as the lowest sum for "efficiency," for the normal family, a distinction well worth emphasizing. This is an income to live on, not to *save* on, another fine point worth a chapter of elucidation. In place of saving (on low incomes) we have a new contribution to the discussion of the problems of the middle class family in the suggestion that old age, sickness and accident insurance pensions be provided for this group as well as for the "working class." Moreover, budget making is declared to be a government task quite as important as the preparation of vitality statistics.

A valuable warning is given the parents who make untold sacrifices that their children may obtain an education in the trade or profession which they feel their natural talents indicate, quite irrespective of the fact that the world is perhaps already amply supplied with trained service in that field, as witness the oversupply of M.D.'s. The chapter on training the "Consumer" really treats of the "Spender" as Nearing and Richardson have more correctly defined the housewife. It is surprising to find this old phraseology still current.

Altogether this is a work which the husband and wife struggling to stretch \$1000 to \$3000 across the expansive wants of a normal family of five cannot afford to pass by.

The New Housekeeping. Efficiency Studies in Home Management. By Christine Frederick. New York: Doubleday, Page and Company. \$1.00. By mail of the Journal, \$1.08.

Mrs. Frederick in her book has written on household efficiency from the inside giving in a very personal way a discussion of standards in housekeeping as Mrs. Bruère gave from the outside in her book, *Increasing Home Efficiency*.

In sixteen chapters Mrs. Frederick discusses motion study, floor plan of the kitchen and routing the kitchen tasks; the family budget is treated together with the wage schedule and the servant problem. The relation of the individual efficiency to the efficiency of the household and the standardization of equipment and method, forms an introduction to the discussion of the need of legislation in regard to enforcing a one-price plan which shall be the same in all sections of the country. She makes a strong stand for educating the housewife to demand good quality, full weight, and standard purity in all that she purchases for the home, rightly insisting that such instruction must come through the home economics movement in education. This book may be considered as supplementary to such books as Mrs.

Bruère's and Miss Ravenhill's Household Administration in the Twentieth Century.

The book contains a few good illustrations and points out the lines of investigation which a housekeeper may follow in attempting to do her own work without very much outside assistance.

Law of the Household. By Mrs. Eunice Beecher. Boston: Small, Maynard and Company. \$2. By mail of the Journal, \$2.15.

Mrs. Beecher has put into concrete form what has long been needed, an outline in which she systematized the labor in large private homes. We have so many unwritten standards in this country that any attempt to systematize the problem is most welcome and this will be found to be a very suggestive book for the mistress of a large establishment, and invaluable for the woman who is acting housekeeper.

Mrs. Beecher in her introduction points out that this volume has been evolved after years of experience and that it was intended primarily for the use of members of her own family who are establishing their homes. It provides a working outline for each worker for the day as well as for the week.

Household Bacteriology for Students in Domestic Science. By Estelle D. Buchanan, M. S. and Robert Earle Buchanan, Ph.D. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1913. \$2.25. By mail of the Journal, \$2.43.

Since the days of Pasteur who rejuvenated the wine industry of France by his fundamental experiments in bacteriology, and of his successor at the Institut Pasteur, Duclaux, who applied the principles discovered by Pasteur to many of the great practical problems of wine manufacture, the rôle of microorganisms in many of the familiar processes of every day life has been more and more appreciated. The view that bacteria are chiefly instrumental in the production of disease and that they play nothing but a malicious part in the world, while a prevalent one, is not borne out by a thorough study of their various activities. Their importance in the world's economy is but little appreciated however, and this excellent text-book of E. D. and R. E. Buchanan is a welcome addition to the literature of the subject. The name Household Bacteriology is a little misleading and does not give the public an adequate idea of the scope of the volume. It is in reality a textbook on the principles of bacteriology with a special reference to the function of microorganisms in nature as exemplified in the changes occurring in the soil, in milk, in cider and vinegar, and in relation to plant life in general.

The chapters devoted to such subjects as alcoholic and lactic acid fermentation are especially to be commended, as well as that treating of the decomposition of proteins. As far as possible the changes inaugurated by microorganisms are explained by the chemical reaction involved, the most important method of elucidating the complexities of the subject. The latter part of the volume is devoted to the pathogenic bacteria, and the descriptions of the typhoid bacillus, tubercle bacillus, diphtheria bacillus and other pathogenic organisms, while brief, are in the main correct. The concluding chapters of the book deal with the bacterial contaminations of water and milk and the methods for their examination.

This volume of the Buchanans is carefully written and can be highly recommended. We have but one suggestion to offer in the nature of a criticism, and this concerns the historical introduction which is extremely meagre and does not present clearly the important points in their chronological development. Considerable injustice is done Robert Koch, we believe, in the failure to mention his important contributions published from 1878-1882, which first established our ideas as to the relationship of bacteria to disease on a firm basis by the production of anthrax in animals by pure cultures. Furthermore, no mention is made, at least in this portion of the book, of the poured plate method of separating organisms which was devised by Koch and without which the science of bacteriology could not have developed.

Finally it should be noted that the text-book is not merely useful to industrial bacteriologists but contains a great deal of information which is valuable for the student of medicine.

The Home School. By Ada Wilson Trowbridge. Riverside Educational Monographs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company. 1913, pp. 95. \$0.60. By mail of the Journal, \$0.65.

The home school, as described in this book, is not so radical an educational departure as we are led to expect from the opening chapters which deal with the need for a new type of school. It is a step forward, to be sure, but the next step, and not the step after the next. It is an experiment which might well be tried immediately in any city or large town and which doubtless ought to be tried in all factory districts.

The Home School at Providence, of which the writer has been in charge since its opening two years ago, and which forms the subject of the descriptive chapters of the book, is primarily a continuation school for working girls. Such girls as a group have two educational needs—the need for instruction which will help them to advance in their work and the need for training in housecraft. The latter is met by this school whose training differs from that of the usual domestic science course in being given under home conditions. The work of the school, which is conducted in a five-room flat and is a part of the public school system, is carefully outlined by the author and the housekeeping notes used in the classes are given.

Perhaps the most original feature is found in the emphasis placed upon the home as a place where “the enlarging activities and responsibilities of women” are to be housed. Hope for the rapid growth of home industries by which women may earn money without going out into factory or office is drawn from experience. “There is demand for all the bread and cake baked at the Providence Home School and a little sum realized from this was turned over to the superintendent at the end of the first year.” The girls “have sold jelly made from wild barberry, and outings are planned for gathering the wild grapes and apples for jelly.” “In every locality there is material that for one reason or another offers special economic possibilities either from the standpoint of use or art. In California, for example, there are the fruits not suitable for shipping which may be purchased for very little. In Florida there are the ‘drops’ in the orange and grapefruit groves which may be had almost for the asking, yet it is often impossible to buy good home-made orange or grapefruit marmalade. And although

the guava grows easily and abundantly in Florida, the 'guava-paste' one buys is made in Cuba or Honduras, and in the tourist season it is sometimes impossible to get good home-made guava jelly. The kumquat is abundant, and the preserved fruit a great delicacy, but no housewife has yet been enterprising enough to put this on the market for the benefit of the tourists. In the South there are many rarities and novelties in fruits and made delicacies which offer an opportunity for the development of home industry, particularly in those sections visited by tourists. A few successful home schools would help to show what can be done with home market gardens, the cultivation of flowers for selling, home baking, needle-work, and art work of all kinds."

Since the time is ripe for the establishment of home schools, this little volume is likely to find a host of readers. For this reason, its errors in fact (very few, to be sure) like that which makes "the eggplant a wholesome substitute for meat, cheaper and more healthful;" and its few errors in judgment like that involved in the instruction, "often shake the duster out of the window or door," when the window or door is that of an apartment in a crowded district, are greatly to be regretted. It is unfortunate too that the writer should have described the school in a spirit of "throwing down the gauntlet to the laboratory method of training girls for the vocation of home makers and mothers," instead of allowing her helpful and inspiring record of achievement to stand for itself, as a contribution toward the solution of one small part of the education of young women.

The Three Gifts of Life. By Nellie M. Smith. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, \$0.50. By mail of the Journal, \$0.55.

The Three Gifts of Life is one of the most satisfactory books that has ever been published in regard to the problem of what and how to teach the girl in regard to her responsibility for race progress. The introduction by Thomas D. Wood, of Columbia University, is not the least valuable part of the book.

Miss Smith presents the facts of life in simple language, full of concrete illustrations so that the girl of the grammar grade will find it both interesting and easy to understand. The discussion of the meaning of life is taken through the plant world and lower animal world up to human life and the responsibility that rests upon the girl in choosing that which will make for better race development. It tells in a direct, unsentimental way, how the girl may influence other girls and men to be their best selves by always holding the ideal that women can help race progress by seeking the best in themselves, and demanding the best in men.

No girl should be allowed to go away to school till she knows the simple facts that are contained in this book so that she may better meet the problems and temptations that may come to her.

Primer of Hygiene. By John W. Ritchie and J. S. Caldwell. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company. New World Science Series. \$0.40. By mail of the Journal, \$0.48.

Primer of Sanitation. By John W. Ritchie and J. S. Caldwell. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company. New World Science Series. \$0.50. By mail of the Journal, \$0.60.

Primer of Physiology. By John W. Ritchie and J. S. Caldwell. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company. New World Science Series. \$0.60. By mail of the Journal, \$0.70.

These three books are intended for use in school below the high school grade. They are good in so many ways that it is to be regretted that they are not good on every count. The Primer of Hygiene is the best of the three. It is direct, simple, and well illustrated.

The Primer of Sanitation discusses in great detail the methods of infection and the means of prevention, but some of the illustrations are not sufficiently labeled. On page 9 neither the text nor the illustration sufficiently emphasizes the danger of the child eating from the spoon which has been used by a sick man. So many diseases are discussed in detail that the omission of gonorrhea and syphilis cannot escape attention.

In the Primer of Physiology, the division of the body is discussed in detail as to the problem of reproduction, but although twenty-five pages are given to the subject of tobacco and alcohol no mention is made of the need of care in regard to personal hygiene of the most important organs of the body. Except in this regard there seems to be no hesitation in discussing the whole problem of ill health.

The three books are a distinct contribution to a more sane method of teaching personal hygiene. The use of black type for the heading of each new subject is a help to the student.

Studies on the Feeding of School Children. By A. van Voorthuysen. *Nederland. Tijdschr. Geneesk.*, 2. 1912, no. 3, pp. 165-177. Abs. in *Zentbl. Expt. Med.* 2, 1912, no. 15, pp. 695, 696. *Expt. Sta. Rec.* 28 (1913) no. 7, p. 664.

To study the effect of abundant and insufficient food, weighings were made at intervals of 98 children who were given the school lunch in addition to the food received at home.

The investigation showed, according to the author, that the children of the poorer people dependent solely upon the food received at home gained in weight very slowly, while the children receiving the school lunch in addition gained more rapidly. The author is of the opinion that, in general, the ordinary food is deficient in fat and protein. He considers that 60 grams protein per day is not too much for a child, and that dietary conditions can be improved by adding protein to the ration.

Our Children's Health at Home and at School. Edited by C. E. Hecht, M.A., National Food Reform Association, 178 St. Stephen's House, Westminster, 1912, pp. 467. 5 sh.

This is a report of a conference on diet and hygiene in public secondary and private schools held at Guildhall, London, May 13, 1912, and has the strong and also the weak points of this form of publication. While it lacks unity and continuity and involves many repetitions of material, it has the advantage of presenting the views of a large number of educators as given by them at the conference. The book is divided into three parts. The first contains the report of proceedings; the second, a reproduction of the exhibits shown at the conference,

which consist largely of bills of fare of schools; and the third, the comments of the press on the conference.

The special subjects of the conference were, diet in public secondary and private schools, diet as a factor in physical, intellectual, and moral efficiency; existing methods, the main lines of reform in school diet; instruction in the elements of physiology and personal hygiene; problems in institutional feeding; and training in institutional management.

Among the papers presented were the following: "Diet as a Factor in Physical, Intellectual, and Moral Efficiency," by Clement Dukes; "Diet in Boarding Schools," by Miss M. E. Robertson; "Diet in Preparatory Schools," by W. H. Prosser; "The Importance of Adequate Meals and Suitable Dietary in Securing Efficiency and Good Scholarship," by Alfred A. Mumford; "Main Lines of Reform in Feeding at Public Secondary and Private Schools," by J. Sim Wallace (this paper discusses the value of foods with particular reference to their effects on the teeth); "The Teaching of Elementary Physiology and Personal Hygiene in Public Secondary and Private Schools," by Mrs. Alice M. Burn (with an outline syllabus); "The Teaching of Health (Personal and Social)," by Dr. Cecil Reddie; "Problems in Institutional Feeding," by Mrs. Stanley Hazell; and "Training in Institutional Management," by Miss Marie Michaelis.

Food Consumption and Female Labor from the Standpoint of Household Economics. (*Hauswirtschaftliche Nahrungsmittelkonsumtion und Frauenarbeit.*) By Renetta Brandt-Wyt. Munich and Leipzig: Duncker and Humblot, 1912, pp. iv+123 M. 4.70. (\$1.18).

This book aims to arrange historical and statistical data regarding the consumption of food and the labor of women, not, as is usually the case, from the point of view of the political economist or the general sociologist, but rather from that of the consumer. It also seeks to explain the effect which the transfer of women's productive activity from the household to the industrial world has upon the economic status of the family. The material presented deals chiefly with German conditions and shows a scholarly knowledge of such topics as the statistics of food production and household budgets, the position of women in different industries, the servant problem, and the question of wages. Perhaps the most interesting chapter for the general reader is the first which discusses consumption in families and groups of different stages of social development, among them the *syssitia* or common tables of Sparta and Crete, and the *Zadruga*, a peculiar form of community life which still survives in certain Slavic villages in the Balkan regions.

Home Economics Recipes. By Mary Beals Vail. University of California Syllabus Series 35, 1912, pp. 22. \$0.25.

This syllabus, designed for class room instruction, contains recipes and directions. It is one of a series published by the University of California for class room use.

Other numbers in this series of interest to the student of home economics are: Syllabus No. 1—Introduction to Economics—Topical Outline and References, published in 1905, revised, 1910; Syllabus No. 4—Poverty, and Modern Constructive Philanthropy, 1906; Syllabus No. 10—The Household as an Economic Agent—Record Sheets for Statement of Cost of Living, revised, 1912; Syllabus No. 19—

Laboratory Instructions in Physiological Chemistry, 1910; Syllabus No. 24—Hygiene—The Biological Interpretation of Public Health, 1911; Syllabus No. 29—Biochemistry—Syllabus and Laboratory Directions, 1912; Syllabus No. 33—Notes on Dental Pathology and Therapeutics, 1912. Mention may also be made of Syllabus No. 34—Agricultural Education—Lesson Exercises.

Housekeeping and Cooking Lessons for Rural Communities. By Amelia A. Cooke. Hampton Leaflets, 6, 1913, no. 9. pp. 38.

General directions in the care of the house are given as well as recipes for preparing a number of dishes, the bulletin as a whole being designed for instruction in rural communities, where equipment is limited.

This publication is one of a series designed especially for work among the negroes, and valuable not only for this but also for general use. Earlier pamphlets are: Hampton Leaflets, n. ser., 5, 1909, Nos. 2, Culture and Marketing of Peanuts, by J. E. Davis; 3, The House Fly as a Carrier of Disease, by W. L. Underwood; 9, Hookworm Disease and the Negroes, by C. W. Stiles; 11, Oystering in Hampton Roads, by J. E. Davis; 12, Common Sense in Negro Schools, by G. S. Dickerman; 6, 1911-13, Nos. 1, Sewing Lessons for Rural Schools, by Ellen Taylor; 2, Housekeeping and Sanitation for Rural Schools, by Ellen Taylor and Sarah J. Walter; 3, Canning Fruits and Vegetables, by Mildred E. Moulton; 4, Manual Training in Rural Schools, by J. H. Jinks; 6, Correlation of Industrial and Academic Subjects in Rural Schools, by Ella G. Agnew; 8, Community Clubs for Women and Girls, by Jane P. Barrett, Caroline D. Pratt, and Ida A. Tourtellot; 11, Approved Methods for Home Laundering, by Mary B. Vail.

Food and Diet. A price list of public documents relating to food and diet, issued by the Scientific Bureaus of United States Government. Price List 11 (of Supt. of Docs.), 3d edition, Washington: Government. 1910, pp. 48.

United States Public Documents relating to Health and Hygiene, including Water Pollution and Purification, Food and Diet, etc. Price List 51 (of Supt. of Docs.), 3d edition. Washington: Government. 1912.

Both these pamphlets are price lists of government publications for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., which, like other similar lists, are useful as bibliographies and for the information they contain regarding the method of procuring government bulletins and other documents.

English Cookery Books to the Year 1850. By Arnold Whitaker Oxford. Henry Frowde: Oxford University Press, London, Edinburgh, New York, Toronto, Melbourne, and Bombay. 1913, pp. 192. 5 shillings.

According to a review of this book in the *British Medical Journal* (1913, No. 2735, p. 1166), Englishwomen, although they have "never enjoyed much repute as first-class cooks, . . . have always been regarded as notable housewives, and even the great ladies of the past did not disdain to take an active interest in all that concerned the health and comfort of their families and dependents. The position of mistress of a large household was no sinecure in the good old days, when the chatelaine, besides superintending and taking part in the housework, was usually her own baker, brewer, laundress, and dressmaker, and not infre-

quently was called upon to act as doctor and chemist as well. Nearly every family possessed a number of homely remedies, many of which had been handed down from mother to daughter for generations, and the relation between good health and good food was fully recognized by every good housekeeper. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that many ancient cookery books include, besides the usual receipts, full directions for making up different medicines and the treatment of a variety of diseases."

The author gives title pages of volumes and a short synopsis of the contents, his list beginning with the *Boke of Cookery* published in 1500 and ending with *Common Sense for Housemaids* published in 1850.

He also gives extracts on domestic economy.

The volume is a sequel to *Notes from a Collector's Catalogue*, by the same author, which was published some time ago, and also contains interesting data concerning old cookery books.

English Life and Manners in the Later Middle Ages. By A. Abram. London and New York: 1913, pp. xv + 352, illus. 77.

Although the material on which the author bases his statements regarding English life in the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth centuries has been drawn mainly from original documents, this book is far from being a compilation of dry facts. On the contrary, it presents the everyday life of the times with unusual vividness and discusses so many everyday subjects that one gets something approaching a complete picture of conditions. The headings of the chapters include such topics as characteristics of town life, the position of women, family life, "mete and drinke," the mirror of fashion, houses, public health, education, traveling, etc. The quaint illustrations, all of them dating from the period described, add greatly to one's knowledge and understanding of the work, manners, furniture, and clothing of the times. A list of authorities quoted is given in the appendix and suggests many unusual references for those interested in the history of home and social life.

Household Account Books of Two Parsonages of the Leipsic District During the Last Century (*Die Wirtschaftsbücher zweier Pfarrhäuser des Leipziger Kreises im vorigen Jahrhundert*). By G. Brand. Leipsic: Duncker and Humbolt. 1911, pp. vii + 125.

This study is based on account books kept in the families of three clergymen who were settled in two villages near Leipsic. One family was that of the parson at Beucha, the accounts of which run from 1814 to 1817; the second was at Brandis, 1846 to 1848; and the third at Beucha, 1870 to 1879. As the families were connected and as the towns were near together, the books give an unusual chance to compare living conditions during three successive generations. The material has been carefully worked in comparable tabular form and is accompanied by a discussion of living conditions, as revealed by the accounts and by other family data. From it one gains somewhat of an insight into the domestic life of German professional families in moderate circumstances living in the country during the three periods, but the book is perhaps less valuable as a contribution to social history than as an example of painstaking utilization of unusual statistical material.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- Nutrition and Diet: A Text-book for Secondary Schools.** By Emma Conley. New York: American Book Company. Pp. 200 and Index. \$0.60. By mail of the Journal, \$0.65.
- Injurious Insects: How to Recognize and Control Them.** By Walter C. O'Kane. Pp. xi + 389. Illustrated. New York; The Macmillan Company, \$2. By mail of the Journal, \$2.16.
- Successful Houses and How to Build Them.** By Chas. E. White. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$2. By mail of the Journal, \$2.16.
- A Book of House Plans.** By W. H. Butterfield and H. W. Tuttle. New York: McBride, Nast and Company. Pp. 153. Illustrated. \$2. By mail of the Journal, \$2.16.
- A Book of Distinctive Interiors.** By William A. Vollmer. New York: McBride, Nast and Company. Pp. 128. Illustrated. \$1. By mail of the Journal, \$1.08.
- Furnishing the Home of Good Taste.** By Lucy A. Throop. New York: McBride, Nast and Company. Pp. iii + 219. Illustrated. \$2. By mail of the Journal \$2.16.
- Five Books on Sex Hygiene.** By Dr. E. B. Lowry. Chicago: Forbes and Company.
- Herself, Talks with Women Concerning Herself.** Pp. 221. \$1. By mail of the Journal, \$1.10.
- Himself, Talks with Men Concerning Themselves.** By E. B. Lowry and R. J. Lambert. Pp. 216. \$1. By mail of the Journal, \$1.10.
- False Modesty.** Pp. 110. \$0.50. By mail of the Journal, \$0.55.
- Truths, Talks with a Boy Concerning Himself.** \$0.50. By mail of the Journal, \$0.55.
- Confidences, Talks with a Young Girl Concerning Herself.** \$0.50. By mail of the Journal, \$0.55.
- Common Diseases.** By Woods Hutchinson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.
- The Preliminaries.** By Cornelia P. Comer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company. \$1. By mail of the Journal, \$1.08.
- Some Points in the Making and Judging of Bread.** By Isabel Bevier. Pp. 44. Urbana: University of Illinois, Bulletin 10 (March 17, 1913), no. 25.
- Raisins, Figs, and Other Dried Fruits and Their Use.** By C. F. Langworthy. Pp. 17. From Yearbook of Department of Agriculture for 1912. (Year Book Separate 610)
- A Little Talk About the Baby.** Pp. 14. Women's Institutes of Alberta. Published by Superintendent of Fairs and Institutes, Edmonton, Alberta.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The Ellen Richards Research Prize of \$1000 offered for 1913 for the best thesis written by a woman, on a scientific subject embodying new observations and new conclusions based on independent laboratory research in biological (including psychological), chemical or physical science, has been awarded to Miss Ida Smedley, D.Sc., 1904, London University, 2 Carlyle Mansion, Chelsea, London, S.W., England.

The Naples Table Association For Promoting Laboratory Research by Women. A brief synopsis of Miss Smedley's training and work follows. Studied at Newnham College, 1896-99; Central Technical College (London Univ.) 1899-1903; Davy-Faraday Research Laboratory of the Royal Institution; London School of Medicine for Women, 1899-1900, 1903-05.

Scholarships and fellowships: Gilchrist Scholarship, 1896-99; King Edward VI High School Exhibition 1896-1900; Babhurst Scholar of Newnham College, 1901-03; Beit Medical Research Fellow 1909-1913, renewed for 1912-13.

Original work: Eighteen papers published in the best journals.

Prize paper written and work done in Bio-chemical Laboratory of the Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine from 1909-13.

Has been Demonstrator in Chemistry, Newnham College 1903-04, and Assistant Lecturer in Chemistry in the University of Manchester from 1905 to 1909.

The subject of the winning thesis was: "An Investigation into the Methods of Formation of Fatty Acids from Carbohydrates in the Organism."

Ten theses were submitted in competition.

The French Society of Alimentary Hygiene (the official title of which is *La Société d'Hygiène Alimentaire et d'Alimentation rationnelle de l'Homme*) has recently conferred the well-merited honor of associate membership upon Dr. C. F. Langworthy, Chief of the Nutrition In-

A. H. E. A. Officer Honored. tiguations of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. This Society, which was established eight or nine years ago upon lines suggested by Prof. W. O. Atwater, the organizer of the Nutrition Investigations and one of the chief leaders in such work in this country, has always freely acknowledged its indebtedness to the officers and publications of the U. S. Government and still counts on their coöperation. It has recently been endowed and plans to enlarge its work; one subject to be included is work with a respiration calorimeter of the type first constructed under Professor Atwater's direction at Wesleyan University, and now installed in the laboratory of the Nutrition Investigations at Washington; another line of work is to be the development of international coöperation such as was first suggested by Professor Atwater. Dr. Langworthy's official position and especially his unusual knowledge of the men and methods in nutrition work fit him exceptionally well to aid in carrying out such plans.

A diploma has just been awarded to Dr. Langworthy for a collection of material illustrating nutrition and home economics, prepared for the International Hygiene Exhibition, Dresden, 1911.

The material was brought together and arranged at the request of the Office of Experiment Stations and included bulletins, charts, and other printed material issued in connection with the Nutrition Investigations of the Office, photographs illustrating this work, and catalogues, syllabuses, and other printed material, and photographs showing the character and extent of the instruction in home economics in the agricultural colleges and other educational institutions in the United States and the publications and other work of the American Home Economics Association.

The spring meeting of the Connecticut Home Economics Association was held May 24, at the Connecticut Agricultural College, Storrs. Two new offices were elected to take the places of the retiring vice-president and secretary. Present officers of the Association are as follows:

Connecticut Home Economics Association. President, Miss Mabel L. Gessner, New Haven; Vice-President, Miss Mary E. Andrew, New Haven; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Emilie Haslam, Stamford; Corresponding Secretary, Miss Leda G. Prindle, Hartford.

The Michigan branch of the American Home Economics Association held its third annual meeting May 24, at the Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti.

After an inspiring address of welcome by President McKenney of the Normal College, an interesting program was carried out. In the absence of Miss Pope, of Manistee, her paper on "Differentiation Between Elementary and Secondary Instruction in Home Economics" was read by Miss Field of Grand Rapids. Miss Agnes Hunt read a paper on "Experimental Problems in Foods by College Students," the results of work done by senior women at the Michigan Agricultural College. Miss Lorena Rose, dietitian at the Kalamazoo State Hospital, gave a paper on "Institutional Management." The Richards Memorial Fund was presented by Dean Gilchrist of the Michigan Agricultural College, and plans were made for a canvass of the state in the interests of this important work.

The guests of honor and special speakers of the occasion were Prof. Isabel Bevier, of the University of Illinois, who gave an address on "Opportunities and Obligations of Home Economics;" and Dr. J. H. Kellogg, superintendent of Battle Creek Sanitarium, whose subject was, "Coöperation Between Teachers of Home Economics and the State Board of Health."

The social features of the meeting were delightful, beginning on Friday with a dinner for the members of the executive board, an afternoon tea at the home of Miss Fuller, the president of the association, and including also the May morning breakfast of the Young Women's Christian Association, and the luncheon given by the Household Arts Department.

The officers of the Association are: President, Miss Agnes Hunt, Michigan Agricultural College; vice-presidents, Miss Laurette Morrissey, Grand Rapids, and Miss Charlotte Keene, Detroit; secretary-treasurer, Mrs. Martha H. French, Ypsilanti; representative councillor, Miss Grace Fuller, Ypsilanti.

The Grand Rapids Home Economics Association has taken an active part in the "clean-up" work in that city, in connection with other civic organizations.

Grand Rapids Home Economics Association. The Association has also been most energetic in an effort to secure protection for all foodstuffs, particularly for those which are not washed before being eaten, and is insisting that all bakery goods and confections be protected not only in the stores but while in the process of delivery.

The Massachusetts Agricultural College has recently inaugurated home economics work in connection with the Extension Service under the direction of Miss

University of Maine. Laura Comstock, formerly head of the department of home economics at the University of Maine. The work which she is leaving has grown under her direction so that now it requires

three persons in the immediate department. Miss Cornelia Palmer, who has been for the past two years in the department, has been asked to take Miss Comstock's place and she will be assisted by Miss Anna Keeler and Miss Dorothea Beach. The department is looking forward to increasing its usefulness in the state by the enlargement of its teaching force.

Fourteen young men registered in home economics in the Domestic Science Department at Cornell University during the last school year. The course for men

Cornell University. was identical with the survey course given to the girls taking the arts course who are not specializing in home economics, but who wish enough time in this work to make them better acquainted with their possible domestic conditions. The first

request for such instructions came from forestry students who said they would have something to do with providing meals for large numbers. Therefore a course was offered with the result that fourteen of the men students have taken it this year. They had two lectures and one laboratory period per week. Their instructor says that they gave good attention and were much interested in the course. They gave especial attention to camp cookery. They did not take the sanitation and household management which is given to the girls in the same course, although another year this work will be open to them if they desire it.

A Conference and Exhibition on Work and Play for Children will be held by the Federation for Child Study at 2 W. 64th Street, New York City, Wednesday, November 19, to Saturday, November 22, 1913, inclusive.

Conference on Work and Play for Children. The program includes the names of Dr. Felix Adler, leader of the Society for Ethical Culture, New York City; Mr. Chas. R. Prosser, Secretary, Society for Promotion of Industrial Education;

Mr. Austin T. Levy, manufacturer of woolen goods in Rhode Island; Dr. Leonard P. Ayers, director of the Department of Education, The Sage Foundation; Prof. William Noyes, Teachers College, Columbia University; Prof. Frederick G. Bonser, Teachers College, Columbia University, and president of the Vocational Guidance Association of New York; Prof. O. B. Martin, in charge of Boys and Girls Clubs, Department of Agriculture, Washington; Mr. Owen Lovejoy, of the National Child Labor Committee, New York; Miss Alice Barrows, director Vocational Education Survey of the Public Education Association of New York City; Miss Jane Day, Public Education Association, New York; Mr. Frederick W. Ellis, director of Social Research of the New York Neurological Institute. There

will also be Demonstrations of children's songs, games, and dances that relate to industry or grew out of it, and exhibits of toys and musical instruments.

Through the insistence of the Ohio Farm Women's Clubs, and Mrs. Foulke and Miss Mason of *The Ohio Farmer*, the following sets, comprising a total of 465 books, have recently been added to the traveling library department of the Ohio State Library, for the use of clubs and women generally over the state. Food and Diet, Alice P. Norton; Principles of Cookery, Anna Barrows; The House, Isabel Bevier; Household Bacteriology, Elliott; Textiles and Clothing, Watson; Care of Children, Dr. Cotton; Household Management, Terrill; Home Care of the Sick, Pope; Chemistry of the Household, Dodd; Furnishing a Modest Home, Daniels; Bacteria, Yeasts and Molds, H. W. Conn; Human Foods, Prof. H. Snyder; Domestic Service, Lucy M. Salmon; Household Economics, Helen Campbell; Food and Dietetics, Dr. Robert Hutchinson; How to Keep Household Accounts, Haskins; Progress in the Household, Lucy M. Salmon; Chemistry of Cooking and Cleaning, Ellen H. Richards; Cost of Shelter, Ellen H. Richards; Cost of Food, Ellen H. Richards; Cost of Cleanliness, Ellen H. Richards; Woman Who Spends, B. J. Richardson; Cost of Living, Ellen H. Richards; Drinking Water and Ice Supply, T. M. Prudden; Domestic Water Supplies for the Farm, Fuller; Food and Food Adulterations, Dr. H. W. Wiley; Chemistry of Daily Life, Lasser and Conn; Human Nutrition, Jordan; What One Woman has Done for Farm Women, Jennie Buell.

At a recent meeting of the General Education Board in addition to the appropriations to colleges the following appropriations were made: For demonstration work in agriculture in the Southern States (including the boys' corn club work), \$180,000; for the promotion of girls' canning and poultry clubs throughout the South, \$75,000; for agricultural demonstration work in five counties of Maine, \$14,500; for beginning agricultural demonstration work in New Hampshire, \$7500; for professors of secondary education in the several state universities of the Southern states, \$30,550; for state supervisors of negro schools in several Southern States, \$20,000; to three schools for negroes, \$25,000.

A department of domestic science and art has recently been established at the convent school for the higher education of women, St.-Mary-of-the-Woods, Indiana. The large number of students who have taken up this work shows clearly that the new course was desired. The work is in charge of Miss Rose Trimpay. There are general courses, advanced courses in invalid cookery and in infant diet, and a special course in serving. Laboratory work and class room work have their place in the curriculum.

"The theory and practice are closely interwoven throughout the entire course. The work is performed in an ideal kitchen laboratory, equipped with all the appliances necessary to perfect results."

Courses in sewing, which include designing and the making of entire outfits of wearing apparel, etc., form a part of the household economics work.

In accordance with plans devised by Jeanette C. Van Duyn, lecturer and instructor in household science, who received much of her training at Macdonald College, Quebec, a household science division has been organized as a part of the work of the Department of Agriculture of South Africa. Its purpose is to attend to inquiries regarding household matters and to disseminate information by means of lectures and demonstrations, "with the object of making known the benefits to be derived from the study of this subject, as well as the importance of young women being trained along this line." It is also the purpose of the division to encourage women's organizations and to provide as a part of its equipment standard works, periodicals, and magazines, as well as various labor-saving appliances.

A Household Science Congress was organized in conjunction with the Dry Farming Congress, October 19-20, 1911, and was the first meeting of its kind held in South Africa. It proved to be a great success and was well attended by both town and country women. According to a report of the work, "some very valuable papers were read and instructive lectures delivered on subjects pertaining to the home by various delegates from different parts of the Union, while discussions followed after each paper in which everyone was invited to take part. The keen interest and enthusiasm displayed by the women at the Congress were indeed evidence of their great appreciation of this new movement, . . . [Miss Van Duyn feels] convinced that the benefits which will accrue from such an organization will be manifold not alone to the individuals, but to the whole country. It is, therefore, very encouraging to note that the sum of £50 has been placed on the estimates for the purpose of carrying on this work. . . .

"It is most gratifying how rapidly this movement has spread throughout the country, and the support given by the people has been most encouraging. Everyone is strongly impressed with the urgent need that some provision be made for the training of girls in household matters, and daily we receive inquiries regarding the proposed School of Household Science." Miss Van Duyn states "that the Household Science Committee have proved themselves most earnest and ardent workers, and have spared no efforts in trying to push the scheme ahead. The women of South Africa are beginning to realize the importance of this Science in the home, and sooner or later such an Institution will inevitably have to be established. That this project may materialize in the near future is sincerely to be hoped."

The Beta Chapter of Omicron Nu was installed at the New York State Normal College the last of March.

A month later Gamma Chapter was installed at the Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts. This is the largest of the three chapters, and consists of eight faculty and twenty student members.

The Honorary Home Economics Society: Alpha Chapter, which was organized at Michigan Agricultural College a year ago with a charter membership of seventeen, has at present twenty active members, since those of the Class of 1912 have left college. The object of the society being to promote home economics and scholarly work among its students, those only who maintain high scholarship and show promise of future achievement are eligible to membership.

THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N. Y., JUNE 27-JULY 4, 1913.

The sixth annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association was held at Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., Friday, June 27, to Friday, July 4, 1913, inclusive. This was the first summer meeting of the Association and therefore the first meeting of such length.

The meeting was the largest and the most enthusiastic ever held by the Association. The unlimited hospitality of the Home Economics Department of Cornell gave the note for the whole conference. The sessions were held in the Assembly Hall of the beautiful new Home Economics Building, the visitors ate in the cafeteria of the same building, and the majority of them were lodged at Sage College. The fact that for the first time the Administration Section forsook the beauties of Lake Placid to meet with the Association, made the meeting of wider interest and richer content.

The weather was as warm as the Cornell welcome, but despite the heat, the attendance at meetings was uniformly good. It ran as follows: First session, 112; second session, 181; third session, 146; (reception and Sunday meeting not counted); fourth session, 208; fifth session, 177; sixth session, 186; seventh session, 189; eighth session, 192; ninth session (first of Institution Economics), 190; tenth session, 105; eleventh session, 150; twelfth session, 93. The official registration was 243, but of course this does not show everyone in attendance. An analysis of the registration does, however, show some interesting facts. There were representatives from thirty of the states of the United States, the District of Columbia, from the provinces of Canada, and from France, Scotland and Russia. The local attendance was as always largest, New York showing 97. Massachusetts came next with 22, Pennsylvania showed 20, Illinois 13, Michigan 11, Indiana 6, Iowa 6, Connecticut 5. There were 9 from Canada and 3 from foreign countries.

The sessions were so arranged that no day held more than two, and they rarely exceeded the planned two hours. This gave ample opportunity for private conferences, and for the meetings of groups

having special interests. Among the groups that met in this way were the Home Economics Section of the National Education Association Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, the teachers in elementary schools, rural extension workers, research workers, and women's club workers. Each of these groups held more than one meeting, and there was one in session on Friday afternoon, July 4, when the Association meetings had been formally closed. The meeting of special groups is so valuable a part of such a conference that undoubtedly more and more provision will be made for their sessions.

The alumni of many schools of home economics—Chicago, Drexel, Mechanics, Pratt, Simmons, Teachers College—lunched together by special arrangement. The roof garden over the cafeteria was an ideal meeting place in the late afternoon and evening. The Frigga Fylge, the woman's club of the School of Agriculture, added much to the pleasure of the American Home Economics Association, as well as something to the building fund of their Recreation Hall, by serving tea and ices afternoon and evening.

The exhibits included the new collection of portraits of men and women who have contributed to home economics, made for the Association by Dr. C. F. Langworthy; an exhibition of some of the extension work of Cornell University, material from the U. S. Department of Agriculture; and some design and handwork from Pratt Institute. There was also a full exhibition of the printed matter of the Association and that sold by it, in the office of the *JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS*. The new "farm car" of Cornell was on exhibition not far away.

Special trips were arranged by land and water, so that everyone had the opportunity to see something of the beauties of Ithaca and its surroundings. There were walks as early as 6.30 a.m., a lake trip, a trip to the George Junior Republic, and many other pleasures.

The meeting as a whole showed a breadth of interest and a unity of spirit remarkable in any Association.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE MEETING.

Friday, June 27, 2 p.m. The President, Miss Sarah Louise Arnold, presided, and opened the session with a few welcoming words. The following reports were then presented:

Report of the Secretary January 1 to June 27, 1913: The time which this report covers being but six months, and those the six months before an annual meeting, the greater part of the activities of the Secretary have concerned that meeting. It is therefore made the first subject in this report.

Sixth annual meeting.—For the first time the meeting of the whole Association is held in the summer and in the country, since one may justly term the Cornell campus country. Heretofore, the American Home Economics Association has met during the Christmas holidays, in a city, with crowded sessions and with no opportunity for leisurely private conferences. The Lake Placid Conference had offered all the delights of one of the most beautiful places in the country, and the informal conferences combined with the formal meetings, laid the firm foundation of the home economics movement. The Administration Section has continued its meetings there, but the whole Association has never had such a meeting. So this present meeting was planned to be a leisurely one, that might be justly considered a holiday as well as a professional duty. There are eight days of meetings, and no more than two general sessions in one day. Each session is planned to last two hours, allowing time for discussion. All members are urged to call private conferences as they wish, in the free mornings or afternoons, and the Secretary will arrange for a room for any such conference. It is hoped that this plan will meet the approval of those in attendance. The Council will be very glad to receive, through any of its members, expressions of opinion regarding the plan, whether favorable or unfavorable.

One word should be added about the program. Less time than usual is given to technical papers in home economics and more to the broader relations and correlations of the work. It has seemed wise to the Program Committee, at this time when the home economics movement is growing with unprecedented rapidity, to bring out the fact that the interests of the family and the home are common to every class and type, and that those who are directing the "art of right living" can do so effectively only when their vision includes the widest reaches of human life.

One further word about the hospitality we are receiving. The Cornell Department of Home Economics, which to all of us means Miss Van Rensselaer and Miss Rose, have taken much of the burden of the meeting, and Cornell University has offered its buildings, printed our program, and generally done much for us.

Affiliated societies.—The following societies, whose interests coincide in some points with those of the American Home Economics Association, were asked to send representatives to this meeting: American Kindergarten Association, American Library Association, Association of Collegiate Alumnae, American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, National Congress of Mothers, National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, National Child Labor Committee, National Conference of Charities and Correction, National Consumer's League, National Grange, National Housing Association, National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, General Education Board, General Federation of Women's Clubs, National Kindergarten Association, Efficiency Society.

The secretaries of the following societies replied cordially, but were unable to send representatives: General Education Board, National Housing Association, Efficiency Society.

The following are to be represented at this meeting by delegates as named: National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Mr. Dexter S. Kimball, of Cornell University; American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, Miss M. Adelaide Nutting, of Teachers College, Columbia University; Association of Collegiate Alumnae, Mrs. Elizabeth L. Clarke, of Williamstown, Mass.

The Efficiency Society asks that the announcement be made that their membership is now open to women. If anyone who is interested will leave his or her name at the registration desk, information will be sent later.

The Girls' Friendly Society of America asks the coöperation of this Association in its work for girls, and this will be given as asked in detail. The Association has also been asked to assist the Y. W. C. A. in reorganizing their work in home economics.

Letters urging the sending of delegates were also sent to eighty-four institutions of college grade where home economics is taught.

National Education Association.—The Association has coöperated with the Manual Training Section of the National Education Association in the preparation of a home economics meeting at their Salt Lake City meeting in July. Several members of this Association will attend as delegates.

The American Home Economics Association will be represented at the International Congress of School Hygiene, to be held at Buffalo in August, by Miss Mary E. L. Small, supervisor in the Buffalo public schools, and Miss Helen Hollister, of Mechanics Institute. It was the plan that our president, Miss Arnold, should in person present a paper at the American Library Association Conference, now in session at Kaaterskill, on the aid the public library may give the housekeeper. Miss Arnold was detained at Simmons, but wrote fully regarding the subject to the President of the American Library Association.

Bulletin.—The *Bulletin* is the official means of communication with all members, and it is hoped that every member will soon acquire the habit of reading every word of each number with care.

There is no question of the importance of the present moment in the home economics movement. The Council of your Association is giving time and thought to many important problems. Their work is of little avail without the coöperation of every member, and the last word of this year's Secretary's report shall be—"Coöperate."

ISABEL ELY LORD.

Report of the Treasurer, January 1 to June 18, 1913, Inclusive.

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS.

	<i>Receipts.</i>	<i>Expenditures.</i>	<i>Balance.</i>
Association.....	\$729.21	\$550.12	\$179.09
Journal.....	2,964.47	1,951.49	1,012.98
Administration Section.....	110.76	6.00	104.76
Ellen H. Richards Memorial Fund.....	68.26	32.91	35.35
Permanent Association Fund.....	150.00		150.00
	<hr/>	<hr/>	
	\$4,022.70	\$2,540.52	\$1,482.18
	2,540.52		
	<hr/>		
Balance, Cash on hand.....	\$1,482.18		
Balance, Interest-bearing a/c, Harford Nat. Bk., Bel Air, Md.....			\$500.00
Balance, Check a/c, Harford Nat. Bk., Bel Air, Md.....			313.78
			<hr/>
			\$813.78
Balance, Second Nat. Bk., Washington, D. C.....			518.40
			<hr/>
			\$1,332.18
Permanent Association Fund, Emigrant Indust. Sav. Bk., (New York City).....			150.00
			<hr/>
Total Cash on hand.....			\$1,482.18

ASSOCIATION.

Receipts:

Balance from 1912.....	\$11.71	
Dues collected.....	717.50	\$729.21
	<hr/>	

Expenditures:

Meetings.....	\$74.30	
Managing Editor's office, 1/5.....	199.90	
Bulletins.....	146.66	
Officers' expenses.....	129.26	550.12
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Balance.....		\$179.09

JOURNAL.

Receipts:

Balance from 1912.....	\$556.69	
Reprints.....	173.93	
Subscriptions.....	2,043.85	
Advertising.....	190.00	
	<hr/>	

Forward \$2,964.47

Journal Receipts, forward \$2,964.47

Expenditures:

Journal printing.....	\$982.00	
Editor's office.....	70.25	
Managing Editor's office, 4/5.....	799.60	
Miscellaneous.....	99.64	1,951.49
Balance.....		<u>\$1,012.98</u>

ADMINISTRATION SECTION.

Budget allowance.....	\$40.00	
Receipts.....	70.76	\$110.76
Expenditures.....		<u>6.00</u>
Balance.....		<u>\$104.76</u>

ELLEN H. RICHARDS MEMORIAL FUND.

Receipts:

Contributions.....	\$26.65	
Books sold.....	18.51	
Slides rented.....	2.76	
Syllabus, Sold \$53.09.....		
Cost 32.75.....	20.34	\$68.26

Expenditures:

General.....		<u>32.91</u>
Balance.....		<u>\$35.35</u>

PERMANENT ASSOCIATION FUND.

Balance from 1912.....	\$150.00	
No expenditures.....		
Balance.....		<u>\$150.00</u>

ASSETS AND LIABILITIES.

Total Cash on hand..... \$1,482.18

Assets:

Unpaid dues.....	\$78.00	
Unpaid subscriptions.....	638.00	\$716.00

Liabilities: (unpaid bills in hand)

Williams & Wilkins Co., June Journal.	\$398.08	
Charles H. Wilson, rent and tele- phoning.....	3.75	
Wm. H. Pierce & Co., picture.....	4.50	
Teachers College, lantern slides.....	10.80	
W. Roe, express.....	.60	
W. Roe, express.....	1.72	419.45
		<u>296.55</u>
Total assets.....		<u>\$1,778.73</u>

C. F. LANGWORTHY.

Nominating Committee: The Nominating Committee recommends the election of the following officers for the year 1914:

President, Sarah Louise Arnold, Dean, Simmons College, Boston, Mass.

Vice-Presidents, Martha Van Rensselaer, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.; Abby L. Marlatt, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.; Benjamin R. Andrews, Teachers College, New York City.

Secretary, Isabel Ely Lord, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Treasurer, C. F. Langworthy, 1604 Seventeenth St., Washington, D. C.

For members of the Council, to serve five years: Mrs. Mary Hinman Abel, Mrs. Alice P. Norton, Miss Ellen C. Sabin, Dr. Henry C. Sherman, Prof. William Morse Cole.

Nominating Committee, to serve five years: Miss Bertha N. Terrill.

L. A. NICHOLASS,
for the Committee.

Syllabus Committee: Miss Bevier, the Chairman of the Syllabus Committee, is helping on the home economics work in California this summer, and has asked me to act in her place and make a report of the results accomplished. The most important thing that the Syllabus Committee has to report is something which you all know, namely, that the Syllabus has been completed and printed, and is now ready for your use and criticism. The latter the Committee particularly solicits in order that the second edition, which we confidently expect will be required, may be an improvement on the first.

It is needless to say that it is a difficult thing to gather material for such a project and classify, digest, and edit it; and no one realizes more than the Committee that the work so far done does not represent the ideal. And yet we believe that nothing has been brought together before in print, in which so many things related to home economics are classified in logical order. It seems certain that out of the material presented, it will be possible to select more intelligently that which is needed for courses of instruction suited to the needs of any particular institution, for a classified survey of a whole field surely means that one can the more readily choose the part which best meets his requirements.

The Committee realizes that, as a whole, the work it undertook is only begun; and it hopes that the Association will continue it with power to work on the general project, and that the members of the Association will coöperate and aid the work by suggestions and in other ways.

One thing has been very pleasant about this Syllabus work, and that is the ready response to requests for assistance. Portions of the Syllabus have been submitted, as the work progressed, to a large number of persons and their suggestions and criticism requested. It is much harder to give constructive than destructive criticism; it is easy to find flaws and difficult to carefully revise and edit. Yet many took the time and trouble to do this; and instead of tearing down, as they could so easily have done, they strengthened and built anew. From several members came suggestions so valuable and so important that without them the Syllabus would have lacked much of what it now contains. The Committee is more grateful than it can say to all who made its task easier and the result better.

You will recall that before the Syllabus was begun, definitions of fundamental terms were proposed and adopted by the Association. These terms included "home economics," "food," "clothing," "shelter," and "home and institution management." The material included in the Syllabus has been gathered together and classified around these terms and their logical subdivisions.

Now, the question is, What shall we do next to carry the project further? In response to many requests for them, a number of suggestions have come. Several members are of the opinion that we should now do our best to collect bibliographical data regarding each one of the topics included in the Syllabus, taking the more important topics first. It may not be out of place to say that one of our members is now working on a book which, if published, as we all hope it will be, will include a good bibliography, as well as an exhaustive discussion of the origin and development of our culinary and table customs. This is one step, and a long one, in the right direction. The next thing after bibliographical work is to write a monograph of every one of the topics the Syllabus contains. That is an ideal that we think we may hold before us, though it does represent a vast amount of work. One of the Committee made the suggestion that we should at once endeavor, from the material we have brought together, to outline courses of instruction suited to various needs. This, too, would be valuable work. If it were done, it would enable us to grant a request such as was made the other day for an outline of a course of instruction suited to rural school work in home economics in the South—a course not only for the five or six months of the school year, but for home work for the rest of the year as well. This would mean a program of work for every day in the month and every month in the year which could be put into the hands of a very large number of teachers in rural schools in the South and which would, with modifications to suit local conditions, be useful elsewhere. It was necessary to say that owing to lack of opportunity and funds, no way seemed clear to do this work, valuable as it would be. It would seem that the American Home Economics Association could take it up if it were subsidized, and let us hope that funds may sometime come for such work.

All of the projects suggested seem to the Committee to be good and it remains for the Association to decide what it can do and how it can do it.

The easiest of these projects is the bibliographical work. It would be a simple matter, when anyone finds an article which is valuable, on a home economics topic, to make a complete bibliographical reference to it and send it to the chairman or to the secretary of the Syllabus Committee. Duplicates could be weeded out and the rest retained and classified. It is surprising how a bibliography grows. A bibliography of flour and bread, begun several years ago, now contains a thousand or more entries. It has grown quite largely from the titles found in general work with books and periodicals. This bibliography is neither complete nor well balanced; but it would serve the Committee as a basis for work on bread and breadstuffs. We have also as a part of our nutrition work in the Office of Experiment Stations, a similar bibliography of general home economics topics and particularly of nutrition, and have now from 3 to 4 thousand entries. A large amount of this material represents older rather than recent work. The pages of the Experiment Station Record would furnish thousands of additional nutrition titles, and this periodical is carefully and fully indexed. Such material, it is needless to say, is accessible to the Committee or to the individual members, if they wish to use it for a bibliographical project. A plea for a complete bibliographical

reference may not be out of place here. Of course this is something which is, in part at least, a matter of opinion. Some are inclined to believe that in citing from a periodical or a book, the best plan is to use a form of abbreviations for titles, consisting of initial letters, as "J. A. C. S." (*Journal of the American Chemical Society*). Obviously this necessitates the continual use of a code and this is too troublesome to make it satisfactory. Self-evident abbreviations are much more satisfactory. "Jour. Amer. Chem. Soc." is plain to anyone who knows English, and one who did not could make a better guess than he could from the letters only. Some believe that in citing a reference, it is enough to give the year of publication and page; others, that only the volume of the periodical should be given; some believe in the use of Roman and others of Arabic figures to designate the volumes; and so it goes with each detail. All this ground was gone over very carefully in preparation for making the Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon General's Office, one of the finest and most extended works of reference which we possess—a mine of information for the student of nutrition and dietetics, as well as the student of medicine. Dr. Billings and his associates canvassed the whole situation, and as a result prepared a system which consists of a self-explanatory abbreviated title with the year, volume, number, and pages; these data following the full title of the article and the author's name. They also prepared and published a very complete volume of titles and their abbreviations. This collection of titles covers almost all possible words in many languages which would be used in the titles of periodicals pertaining to medicine or related sciences. When the Experiment Station Record was started, it (unconsciously, perhaps, at first) followed very much the same system. Later an attempt was made to follow it more carefully, and abbreviations for a very large number of agricultural and related titles were prepared. The system was simplified by leaving out of the reference, articles, conjunctions, and prepositions, where possible—a change which seems permissible. The abbreviated title of the journal is followed by the volume number, year of publication (in parentheses), serial number, and pages covered; e.g., "The Free Energy of Chemical Substances," by G. N. Lewis (*Jour. Amer. Chem. Soc.*, 35 (1913), No. 1, pp. 1-30). Besides the publication noted, the *Index Medicus*, the nutrition publications and other publications of the Office of Experiment Stations, and many others (surely the largest group in the United States doing such work with anything like uniformity) use this or practically the same system. In connection with home economics bibliographical work in our JOURNAL and other publications, we recommend that this system be adopted. Nothing could be more simple. You have it all there, and there is a minimum chance for confusion or error.

This matter is mentioned here because it is of special importance if we are to undertake extended work in bibliography. It also has a direct relation to our JOURNAL work and if the system were followed by all our contributors, it would save the editors a tremendous amount of work.

This is all that needs to be said about the work of the Syllabus Committee at this time. We leave to you the problem of determining the lines of work to be followed. The Committee recommends the sort of work we have mentioned, and under any circumstances, it will work to the best of its ability, counting on your help. We believe that the most satisfactory method of continuing the work is by means of collecting bibliographical data for the various topics contained in the Syllabus, and we also recommend monographs on these topics, and to those

especially interested in the educational side of home economics, the compiling of outlines for courses of instruction.

C. F. LANGWORTHY,
Acting Chairman.

Committee on Textiles: No report presented. Miss Agnes H. Craig, Chairman.

Committee on Publicity: No report, except one of progress. Mr. Maurice LeBosquet, Chairman.

Committee on Institution Economics Section: When the Lake Placid conference on home economics was organized into a national association, we thought our work at Lake Placid, in this special line, was finished. But after only one year's interval, at the urgent request of Miss Nutting of Teachers College, a section for the study of the administration of large numbers met at the Club.

Institution economics includes practically everything in home economics and a good deal besides, since the larger the numbers to be cared for, the more complex the work, the greater is the need for details, system and standards. For three years we have been feeling our way, realizing there was a great mass of much needed pioneer work before us and not satisfied with the progress made. One hopeful sign has been the attendance of men who are in charge of large institutions where several thousand inmates are cared for, who have shown much interest and eagerness for help, especially in the problems of food, the methods of specifying, contracting, storing, distributing, consuming and accounting of supplies. In the preparation and serving of food there is equal need of standards and written practice instructions.

The demand for practical knowledge on questions of shelter and construction is illustrated in the experience of an enterprising hotel manager from the northern part of the state, who started out with his architect and sister, a practical house-keeper, to visit the leading hotels in the state with a view to incorporating their best features in the new house he was planning to build. In one large hotel very recently completed, which stands for the most modern improvements and methods, he found that the architect had allowed a certain amount of space for the kitchen which he thought would be ample, without regard to the placing of equipment or any knowledge of its relative arrangement for right and left service. The result was that there were three places where the paths of waiters crossed and the crash of colliding trays was a common incident, causing constant friction and waste with demoralizing effects throughout the service.

Many subjects have been touched upon in the three section meetings already held; nomenclature, the training and the detail work of the dietitian in relation to both hospital needs and school lunch rooms, laundry management, linen supplies, organization of service and time studies, floor materials, decoration, accounts and records with the general financial management of institutions and the use of graphic charts, per capita costs, the control of insect pests, marketing and cost of living, the training for institution management and practice fields for experience after theoretical training has been received.

There is a wide field for that kind of genius which has been defined as "an infinite capacity for taking pains," in all this work and the adoption of the principles of scientific management in their higher ethical form, offers our best hope of continued progress.

ANNIE DEWEY,
Honorary Chairman.

Committee on Homemakers' Section (read by the Secretary): A year ago I was asked to act as chairman of a Committee on the Homemakers' Section of the American Home Economics Association and began to work with the idea of dividing the country into sections, and of holding meetings in various localities for the presentation of papers and for discussions. My letters to members in different parts of the country whose names were given me, brought either a negative response or the reply that the work should be undertaken later. In the fall a conference was organized in Chicago which was attended by very few except those officers of the Association who were already interested in the project.

After much consideration and consultation with others I have to recommend that the Committee on the Homemakers' Section undertake only one thing at a time. The first undertaking which seems to be feasible is to make a department in the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS. The material required for it should be supplied by articles and information sent to the central committee formed of members in different localities and cities. These articles could then be edited by the Committee and forwarded to the editor of the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS to be edited and used at her discretion, and articles or information sent in which did not seem suitable for the JOURNAL could be used by the Committee at its discretion in the daily press or wherever else it would awaken interest in our movement or spread knowledge of our methods.

We suggest a department in the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS containing three short articles under three general headings—namely,

1. Economics of the Home
 - Home Making a Vocation
 - Labor in the Home
 - Cost of Living
2. Efficiency in the Home
 - The Economic Value of Efficiency in the Home
 - Labor Saving Methods and Devices
 - Hygiene and Home Life
 - Home Management
3. Buying for the Home
 - Knowledge of Textiles—their Quality and History
 - Knowledge of Foods—their Quality and History
 - Knowledge of Markets and Marketing
 - Needs of the Consumer
 - What is an economic investment in household equipment and what is the limit beyond which such investment becomes a wasteful tying up of income?

The department should be worked out to emphasize the idea of developing the possibilities of home-making as a vocation through training and education and then insisting upon the recognition of the economic value of such knowledge and training; in other words, contributing to the discussion of standards in home-making which will lead to its recognition as a vocation.

We must insure greater publicity in order to make the work of this Association known more widely and bring together the home makers already interested but who are widely scattered, and not organized for mutually helpful work.

This will acquaint us with those interested in our subject in different parts of the country, and the next step—that of conferences—will follow. The best time

for conferences for the home maker is not at the time which is convenient for professional workers, a fact which must be considered. We should plan for a conference at Chicago one year from this month at the time of the Biennial Meeting of the Federation of Women's Clubs.

We have a group of Home-Makers in Washington who are ready to coöperate with us, a movement in New York undertaken by Mrs. Shailer, which however cannot really take form until fall, and the same condition existing in Chicago. These we can regard as evidences of what may be accomplished elsewhere.

If the conference approves we will put our plans in action.

BONNIE W. EVANS (Mrs. Lynden Evans),
Chairman.

Committee on International Congress on Home Economics, Ghent, Belgium, June, 1913: As reported by this Committee at the meeting in December, the main work of the Committee has been to get papers to send to the Congress. There was not time to get these papers to Ghent for the preliminary proceedings, but they will be presented at the Congress. The schedule of papers planned is as follows, the name of the author being given where it was found possible to obtain a paper: "Household Science in Elementary Schools," Miss Irene McDermott, Pittsburgh; "Household Science in Secondary Schools," Miss Florence Willard and Miss Muriel Willard, Washington Irving High School, New York; "Home Economics in Institutions for Higher Learning," Miss Abby L. Marlatt, University of Wisconsin; "Professional Education in Household Arts," not secured; "Professional Education in Household Science," Miss Charlotte Ebbets, Simmons College; "Home Use Classes in Cities," Mrs. Margaret Stannard, Garland School of Homemaking; "Extension Work for Country Districts," Miss Martha Van Rensselaer, Cornell University; "Housekeeping Centers in Settlements and Public Schools," Miss Mabel H. Kittredge, Association of Housekeeping Centers, New York; "Home Economics for Men," Dr. C. F. Langworthy, United States Department of Agriculture; "The Basic Work in Pure Science, in Preparing Teachers," Dr. J. S. Snell, Macdonald College, Quebec; "The Basic Work in Art, in Preparing Teachers," Miss Mary J. Quinn, Pratt Institute; "The Basic Work in Economics," not secured; "The Reasons for Including Home Economics in Education of Girls," Miss Isabel Bevier, University of Illinois; "The Vocational and Cultural Value of Domestic Science," Miss Marion Talbot, University of Chicago; "The Help the Home Can Give the School," not secured.

The following papers were obtained, as some compensation for the gaps in the schedule: "A Library of Social Experiment," Mrs. Mary Hinman Abel, Editor, JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS; "A Permanent Exhibit of Home Economics," Mrs. Mary Hinman Abel, Editor, JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS; "Home Economics in a High School," Miss Lillie C. Smith, Brookline, Mass.

The following members of the Association, who are planning to attend the Ghent Congress, have been asked to serve as the official delegates of the American Home Economics Association: Miss Anna M. Cooley, Teachers College, Columbia University; Mrs. Charlotte Ware, Warelands Dairy School, Highland Lake, Norfolk, Massachusetts; Miss Louise Stanley, University of Missouri; Dr. A. C. True, United States Department of Agriculture.

The United States Commissioner of Education wrote asking the name of some one who would attend as a representative from the United States, and the names of the American Home Economics Association delegates were sent him.

It is to be regretted that our own annual meeting comes too near the time of the Ghent Congress to permit members to attend both, but the American work will be much more largely represented at this meeting than it ever has been before on the other side of the Atlantic.

ISABEL ELY LORD,
Chairman.

Committee on Legislation (report presented by Dr. B. R. Andrews): The Committee on Legislation offers the following resolutions with regard to federal legislation, and the following statement as to state legislation:

Resolved, That the American Home Economics Association express its approval of the principle of federal aid in education and especially makes the following recommendations:

First, That the adoption of Senate Joint Resolution 5 is urged, providing for a commission to examine into a plan for national aid for vocational education, in order that there may be a wise investigation of the relation of the federal government to the various city and state systems of vocational education and the possibility of coöperation between the federal government and local government.

Second, That the Lever-Smith bill for extension education (House of Representatives No. 1692 and Senate No. 46) providing for federal aid to individual state colleges for extension work in agriculture and home economics is approved as the immediately necessary and desirable step in making generally available knowledge as to agricultural and industrial processes by which wealth is created and equally as to household management and homemaking by which wealth is conserved and used. The Association especially urges the principle of combining home economics with agricultural and industrial extension education and would view with great regret any separation of these essentially unified activities.

Third, The Association recognizes the great value of the activities now conducted by the United States Department of Agriculture especially in its Division of Nutrition Investigations of the Office of Experiment Stations in their relation to the home and especially urges that the Department of Agriculture provide as rapidly as possible for the broadening of these investigations which serve the farm and other homes of our country, so that problems of clothing and shelter shall receive attention equally with those of nutrition.

Fourth, The Association approves the principle embodied in the Smoot Bill for federal aid to State Agricultural Experiment Stations for research in home economics.

State legislation.—The Committee on Legislation urges workers in home economics to acquaint themselves with the provision of their individual states as to state aid for home economics education. A state program in this respect may include some or all of the following provisions:

1. A state grant toward the salary of vocational teachers in high schools or in the grades.
2. A state system of normal training classes in high schools for the preparation

of rural teachers with stringent provision that the course of study shall include agriculture and domestic science as a prerequisite to the granting of state aid.

3. A system of special schools of home economics to be organized by counties or districts as the county schools of agriculture and domestic economy in Wisconsin and the district agricultural high schools of Virginia, Georgia, Alabama and other states.

4. A system of supervision of country schools as regards vocational training, as instanced in the Minnesota system of state high schools, with aid for vocational departments, with the provision that rural schools in the adjoining territory may become associated with the central high school for instruction in home economics and other vocational subjects.

5. A state requirement that domestic science shall as soon as practicable be taught in all schools.

6. State supervision by the appointment of a state official to encourage the introduction of home economics in schools. Massachusetts has a woman supervisor for evening schools in household arts, and Arizona has appointed a woman as state supervisor of industrial education.

It is urged that state home economics associations, college clubs, and other organizations consider the problem of state legislation regarding home economics during the next year and that reports be made to the Committee on Legislation of this Association.

HELEN KINNE,
Chairman.

Committee on the Graduate School of Home Economics.—Mrs. Alice P. Norton, chairman, reported verbally for this Committee. The account of the School of 1912 has already been published, and the plans for the School of 1914 are not yet completed.

Committee on Ellen Richards Memorial Fund: The Committee charged with the establishment of a Home Economics Fund for Research and Publication as a memorial to the late Ellen H. Richards, reports substantial progress and feels increasingly assured of ultimate success. The gross receipts to date have been \$3142, including general subscriptions of \$2659, sales of Richards calendars, \$310, and special gifts for publishing Syllabus of Home Economics, \$173. There have been canvassing expenses of \$403, calendar expenses of \$297, and the Syllabus printing bill of \$250 is still to be met. There is a net balance from general subscriptions of \$2254, and the Syllabus Fund will net not less than \$250. The net contributions in sight at present equal therefore \$2500.

First, the Committee wishes to emphasize the need of such resources as this Memorial will afford in the development of home economics as a scientific and a popular welfare movement. We are each of us working as individuals in our separate schools and institutions; this Association and its JOURNAL serve as a clearing house for our own needs, adequate as far as it goes. Progress in science is a matter of wider coöperation, however, and at present there are three striking needs most inadequately provided for, which the Richards Fund for Research and Publication will meet.

1. *The encouragement of better prepared advanced scientific workers in home economics.*—Our field of applied science has reached the time when it must go ahead by establishing facts, by encouraging research, by promoting rationally directed inquiry as to the home, the institution and the community. Many colleges and universities are asking for leadership in organizing graduate study in home economics, which means science in the self-conscious stage of truth-seeking and truth-applying. It is a strategic time, for unless home economics develops within itself this power of scientific self-propulsion, of conquering its field of facts and experience, it will make no lasting contribution to better living conditions. The Richards Fund will make possible occasional scholarships, fellowships, and prizes, for the encouragement of advanced students of exceptional merit, and, by multiplying influence through equipping the trained leader, will thus help most fundamentally to secure rapid and certain progress.

2. *The publication of the results of scientific study.*—Our JOURNAL serves this end, but it sorely needs resources just now to enable it to publish longer articles in the form of separate scientific monographs, as has been demonstrated in bringing out the epoch-making Syllabus of Home Economics which has just appeared as the first publication of the Richards Fund, and as is further emphasized by other needed material which is now pressing for publication.

3. *The popularization of home economics.*—Re-writing scientific results in the housewife's vocabulary for her especial application and getting the rules and procedures based on established fact into her hands, is the third need in home economics today. The JOURNAL Board's special fund of \$500, to establish a Housekeeper's Section of the JOURNAL, so promptly raised here in the Cornell meeting, is essentially a contribution to the Richards Memorial Fund. Popularization must proceed by publishing brief bulletins for home and club, and for widespread circularization of cards of directions for household processes to be hung in kitchens; and ultimately a housewife's encyclopedia as authoritative as is the Standard U. S. Pharmacopoeia. The Richards Fund here has a gigantic task, first undertaken by Ellen Richards herself in applying science to the home, and which we must carry out if we are not recreant.

In these three ways, by encouraging scientific workers, by providing funds for larger scientific publications, and by issuing popular rules and procedures for the home woman, the members of this Association, by establishing the Richards Memorial Fund, are engaged in a service of heroic magnitude, and one absolutely essential to the realization of the home economics idea.

What is each member's opportunity? Fundamentally, to raise \$100 which is a member's share, pro rata, of the hundred thousand dollar memorial fund. This need not be done in a week, or a month, or a year; *but let it be done.* By coöperation of friends, of clubs and schools; by an entertainment, festival, pageant, reception, candy or cake sale; by a personal subscription of one to ten dollars a year continuing as many years as may be desired—we have all of us done as much for less worthy causes; by a plea to a man or woman of wealth for a generous subscription to this service of generosity; by securing sales for fifty, one hundred, or two hundred copies of the Syllabus of Home Economics, which is in effect a contribution to the Fund; by some plan for high school or college students of home economics to recognize this woman through whom and by whom there arose this opportunity to study home economics, perhaps by a sale or a special exhibit with

an admission fee charged, as tableaux on some interesting subject, as early American Homes, or of Home Life in Various Lands; or by some undertaking which will grip the club women and home women of your community—perhaps, a “baby show” with scorings as to health, a bread contest, an exhibit of costumes of other days, a series of lectures or demonstrations, or sales arranged at regular club meetings—in some one way or another, or in many ways, achieve this end of contributing a member’s share to this fund, which is to be at once a Memorial and a powerful agency for home betterment.

Every school and college whose students are organizing may have an Ellen Richards Home Economics Club and such a club may work for this Fund, not for a little while, but through one or more years.

Every school and college should observe December 3, 1913, the anniversary of the birth of Ellen Richards, as Home Economics Day with a suitable program. Suggestions will be made in a program printed later. Home Economics Day is a good day for securing contributions for the Fund. Interest your local club in observing the day.

First, then, we ask each member of the Association to consider himself beholden to raise out of his or her circle of influence one hundred dollars for the Fund.

Second, and quite as essential a part, the Committee asks your earnest coöperation in organizing the canvass; by city, state, country, or in whatever way possibilities open up. In one city, a plan for a benefit performance under the patronage of leading club women has been broached; in another a public scientific lecture on a subject of public interest; one state home economics association is taking steps to organize its territory; in another state, one worker has canvassed every high school having home economics; opportunities to address city and state federations of women’s clubs have been secured; local associations are becoming responsible for raising a definite sum, and \$1000 or more may ultimately be secured from such an associated effort; wherever possible members are urged to form groups of two or three or more and by coöperation carry on a wider-reaching and more prolonged effort.

Finally, it is requested that members communicate with the committee offering suggestions and reporting results, that each may benefit from mutual experience.

What has been done is an encouragement to entire success. The Publication and Research Fund is an agency vitally needed in home economics today. Let us honor our leader gone, by eyes forward to these tasks which challenge us today.

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS,

Chairman.

Editorial Board of the Journal.—In making the report for the Editorial Board, Mrs. Abel, the Editor, said in part: “In endeavoring to cover its chosen ground, the JOURNAL has first to report as to its success in furnishing to teachers of home economics and to institution workers a scientific and professional journal open to the discussion of their most vital interests. We are glad to tell you that our scientific friends in other lines assure us that the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS has to a great extent reached that ideal; of your own hearty approval and continued interest you have given us many proofs. You have been patient with our mistakes and you have kept in mind the fact that we have had no money to pay out for special articles that would have added to the interest and value of our pages.

"The reason for turning our attention, first of all, to the needs of the teacher is worth recalling. When the Association was founded, Mrs. Richards, who saw all things ahead for us, said: 'This is going to be a great movement, and it will grow very rapidly: before we know it there will be a call for outlines of courses for teachers and we must be ready to furnish them, for the movement must not start in a poor way.' She threw her splendid intelligence and energy into that line, and year after year the Lake Placid Conference, and afterwards the American Home Economics Association, worked on the best courses in home economics from bottom to top for our schools. We felt then that it was the first thing to do, and we are not through with it. Courses must be watched, they must be kept up to the mark and intelligently extended so that there is no falling down anywhere along the line.

"There has been another reason why the JOURNAL has hitherto addressed itself so largely to teachers and must continue to do so. The teacher knows her problems and she has been trained to discuss them. This she does in the pages of the JOURNAL and so also does the institutional worker and they thus furnish the large part of our material.

"The housekeeper, on the other hand, does not know her problems so well and has not been trained to discuss them and to exchange views with others; therefore she has been, as far as our JOURNAL is concerned, almost inarticulate, and we have not had the money to hire people to speak for her.

"This brings us to the most serious criticism that has been made against the conduct of the JOURNAL, that 'it exists to help teachers to teach more teachers to teach still more teachers,' that in fact it works for the next generation, for the daughters and granddaughters of the present housekeeper, neglecting wholly the needs of that important person today.

"In reply we can say that while we have endeavored to put into every number of the JOURNAL several articles which the practical housekeeper could read with great profit, we are fully aware that all our promises in this regard have not been fulfilled, and the chief reason is, as we have intimated, that well written and helpful articles on housekeeping problems have not been offered us in any great number.

"Now what are the housekeeper's problems? I do not hesitate to say that of all the citizens of our country there are none so ill-adapted to their environment as is the average housekeeper to hers and it is because that environment has changed so and is constantly changing. . Compared with her grandmother she leads perhaps an easy life, but her grandmother was adapted by training from childhood to her simpler life and duties. Think of the things the housekeeper of today has to choose from; the different variety of furniture and equipment, the variety in clothing, the immense range in foods. The power of choice is in the hands of the woman of today, and the power is a very disturbing thing.

"For instance, in equipment, the cook stove in its changing forms has always been a serious question. But now she must not only understand its mechanism but be able to compare it with many other ways of applying heat, and she must know the comparative value of several fuels. What part of her work shall be done in the house and what out of it? How adjust to the lack of good household help? How apply the new principles of efficiency to her equipment and to her labor throughout her varied day? How divide up her income? And with the children come all the problems of the inexperienced mother.

"But when the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS seriously considers taking up the practical questions of daily procedure in the house it has to decide whether it is equipped to treat them in the only way that is really helpful. Back of every such question lies a scientific or economic principle, or a group of them, whose application must be found and explained. We must be able to trace back to laboratory work, or to undoubted practical observation, or additional work may have to be asked from competent people. And not until a subject has been treated in this way can decisions be reached and the chapter be closed until new work is reported.

"The scientific method, as we understand it, is not confined to the laboratory. Whoever intelligently observes, collects, arranges and files data, and then draws conclusions by careful comparison of them is using it. Let us illustrate the lack of this method by what our correspondent writes in the 'woman's column.' She says 'a slice of lemon boiled with the clothes on washing day will make them beautifully white.' To state it more accurately she thinks she has reached this by the use of a piece of lemon of unstated size, boiled for a time not stated, with an amount of clothing, weight not stated. Unfortunately, she does not know the value of the control or check test in drawing a true conclusion. This would have led her to omit the lemon in the boiling of the clothes on an equally sunny or cloudy day and with all other conditions exactly the same, and then, with the help of other good observers, to have compared the two results. Perhaps this would have shown that the supposed fact is not a fact after all.

"Thus, whether the result be positive or negative, the observer would be started on the scientific method, without which no problem can be truly solved.

"There is no doubt that the number of intelligent women who wish to meet the vexed questions of their daily life with an open mind and by the most modern methods has grown rapidly in our country. The JOURNAL Board would feel it a great privilege to be able to coöperate with them.

"We have decided to make the attempt if we can see our way to the financial help necessary. And in this, as in every other venture that the JOURNAL has made, we shall depend on the help and sympathy of the members of the American Home Economics Association."

After the reports Miss Martha Van Rensselaer and Miss Flora Rose welcomed the Association and described both the new Home Economics Building and the home economics work of Cornell University. During the session the President called on Mrs. Elizabeth L. Clarke, delegate from the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, for a few words to the American Home Economics Association.

Meeting adjourned.

FRIDAY JUNE 27, 7.30 P.M.

The President, Miss Sarah Louise Arnold, presided. The first speaker was Mme. Alice Geubel de la Ruelle, inspector of labor in France, and sent by the French Republic to this country to study industrial conditions and industrial education for women. Mme. de la Ruelle spoke on "The Working Girl in France" most interestingly. Dr. Thomas Nixon Carver, Director of Rural Economics, United States Department of Agriculture, then gave a most stimulating address on "Economics in the Home from a Man's Point of View."¹ The President called on members of the audience for comment as follows:

Professor Wilcox: We all of us have thought, no doubt, that there is certain tautology in the phrase "home economics." The word "economics" means literally the care of the home, and it is only as the word developed out of the old original Greek meaning in modern times that it took on a signification which made it necessary to prefix it by the word "home" in order to bring it back to what was its original meaning. The subject of economics of course originated in the eighteenth century when our thought was very much more materialistic than it is today. The underlying thought of the French or the American Revolution was the underlying philosophy of the earliest economist, and it was the philosophy of the adult man very largely, who was the unit of which society was made up. When Buckle said, for example, that the proper study of mankind is man, I take it that he meant that the proper study of mankind was the individual adult male of the species. That is what Bolingbroke's philosophy was, and that was very much what the earliest economics of Adam Smith was. Now in the nineteenth century, particularly the latter half, it seems to me that our whole way of looking at things was changed very largely as the result of the studies of the biologist or student of plant and animal life, among whom Dean Bailey deserves to be reckoned as one who has revolutionized in various ways our point of view. The inspiring and uplifting address that we have had from Professor Carver this evening is a most interesting application of that type of thought. It is showing that the unit of society is not the individual adult man, but rather the group or family.

I think we shall have to come around to the point of view that culture and family building are not as antagonistic as we have thought today. We shall have to realize that culture comes more in and through family building than in any other way. I feel this in my own experience more and more through the years that what life brings to each of us emanates more and more from the family and through one's own realization that he lives not for society, but that the best way he has of expressing his relations to society is through his relations to his own family. Further I believe we are bound to come around to a right view of economics as it is being brought nearer and nearer to its etymological meaning.

¹ See page 291.

Professor James George Needham, Cornell University: May I express my sympathy with your work and my appreciation of the interest your cause has in the cause I represent, namely, plant biology.

The first application of biology is surely to living in this world, and this comes nearer to being represented by home economics than by any other interest whatsoever, and next unto it probably agriculture in the broadest sense, consisting in getting our living out of the life of the world. And then I put down as third in the list that which is often spoken of as important, the application of biology to medicine. It is certainly far more important that we keep in good working order and doing something, than it is that we should be patched up now and then. I am wonderfully interested in your work and in the entire system of the cause you represent.

Meeting adjourned.

SATURDAY, JUNE 28, 10 A.M.

General subject, "The Social Service Side of Home Economics." Presiding officer, Dr. C. F. Langworthy. Miss Mabel Hyde Kittredge, of the Association of Housekeeping Centers, New York City, read a most interesting paper on "The Need of the Immigrant,"² and Miss Josephine J. Eschenbrenner, Membership Secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, an excellent paper on the problem of child labor in this country. There was much discussion, of which brief extracts are given.

Miss Arnold: I want to thank Miss Kittredge in behalf of all of us for her clear and able presentation of the big problem which seems to me one of the largest problems in home economics. The committee in arranging the program hoped very much to tie together the two words that give the title of the Association. Most of us have seen strenuous effort put into the formation of school programs and very great care on the part of the teacher to formulate a series of Teaching Exercises in Home Economics. In some cases we have been like the institution that is forgetting the purpose for which it is called into existence.

We should be most sorry if in our work we forget the men, women and children in the homes for which we are striving to do our work after all. And we hope very much that this reminder will call attention to the dire needs of many homes for which we are doing our work. There is the home in the tenement; there is the home in the country; there is the home everywhere that needs help. There is the home spelled with the capital H, which is the institution.

I am going to repeat a story which Miss Barrows told me about a tenement home. She went in to see the mother while the children were away at school. The mother was holding one baby in her arms, and another baby was clinging to her skirts. After listening to what the young lady had to say, the mother opened a can of sal-

²See page 307.

mon with a stove hook, set both babies beside it on the floor, and they plunged their little fat hands into the can of salmon and then squeezed it into their mouths. That was their dinner. When the other children came home from school it was the dinner for the others.

Now, in just a few short years those girls grow up and establish just such another home unless we can bring them with us, take hold of hands with them and teach them. We can do this only by knowing and understanding their surroundings. We need to know how to speak the language of their experience, knowing not the words only, but understanding the content that they put into their words, their experiences.

One of our functions is to reinforce the present home as it is, and to that end we must know what the home is. Another of the necessities is to insure that the home of the next generation is to be better, and it will never be better unless the children secure from our instruction a very clear notion of the home that is within their reach, and yet is better than the home from which they come.

Dr. Ira S. Wile: The only thing I would suggest is changing the title of Miss Kittredge's excellent paper from "The Need of the Immigrant" to "The Need of the People" because conditions which have been cited in our immigrant homes are in nowise different from those in only too many American homes.

We have three types of service for the immigrant. One of these is not suggested at all in the paper, and that is the fact that the first immigrant is of the male type. The women do not come until the males are settled, and the needs of the male immigrant are satisfied only through boarding systems. Consequently the exploitation by boarding houses is one of the reasons for their low standard of existence. Then we have the newly-wed immigrants who are coming over to start a new establishment for themselves on the plan that Miss Kittredge suggests in the community life, whether in a large city or a small one. The establishment of home conditions naturally depends upon several factors. In the first place it does not matter so much what they want as what they can get. They can only secure housing accommodations according to the amount of their income, or to the amount they can secure by raising their income by taking a boarder, or putting the children to work before they should. Now it is possible to teach these two groups. It is hard to teach the old dog new tricks, but you can teach the average foreigner because it is something new to him. The average foreign woman comes to this country with her foreign ideas. She is not inclined to feel that any one is looking out for her; that is not the foreign way. She views with suspicion the multiplicity of agents who come to visit her, to whom she has to tell her private affairs until they become public affairs, and she does not know a friend from a foe, so it takes a little time to gain her confidence. But in the end it can be gained by tactful work.

Dr. Langworthy: Professor Carver told me that he could not be present this morning. We had hoped that he would contribute to the discussion and regret that he is unable to do so. Speaking of rural conditions and rural homes he said something that I think has a general application to the whole question of better homes. He said that we were teaching the farmer to make money, and as soon as he made money he would inevitably leave the country because the country

was not as comfortable as it should be, and we could not hope to keep the farmer with means in the country home until the country offered such a home as we would ourselves wish to live in, and until country life was the kind of life that we would like to follow ourselves. It can be made all this if we apply to it the knowledge we now possess or can acquire. Miss Kittredge speaks of teaching the girls to recognize not only the dignity of the housework but the willingness to do it. Is there not a parallel there? Can we hope that girls and women will turn to housework with pleasure unless we can lighten its burdens and make it an interesting occupation, or profession, if you will, instead of hard labor? This we can do by applying knowledge to household tasks. Labor-saving devices, household conveniences, coöperative enterprises, and the general adoption of the right methods experts now possess would go far to make this dream come true. We have faith in the future and believe that the unsolved problems will yet be solved, and that rural life and home occupations will again come into their own with full recognition of their possibilities and opportunities.

Mrs. Abel: As to training the boy and girl in the home by means of housework, it is as a previous speaker has hinted, one of my hobbies. I feel that what has been our great need is to move out of the house the heavy tasks that are done there at a great disadvantage, I mean, for instance the laundry and the baking. Even then we should be behind where all foreign households have been for I do not know how long. I knew Germany very well twenty-five years ago, when there was little or no laundry work or baking done even in the poorest houses in the city, and little in the country towns. We all feel, do we not, that some of these heavy tasks could go out to the great advantage not only of the household but also with respect to the perfection of the product? My greatest interest in the matter is that there would then be left in the household an amount of work which would not require the servant in the moderately well-to-do house which now employs one or two. The woman of the household when she rises to the dignity of all her tasks by learning to do them in a perfect way, helped by scientific hands, will be able to use this perfectly wonderful educational plant, the house and its occupations, in teaching the foundational things to little children and in a way which is not possible if her hands are always heavy with burdens which might be taken from her. Now, we are not disembodied spirits; we cannot learn except by the use of things, and through certain media, and I cannot imagine any educational plan so fine for teaching to very little children all the elemental things, for instance, that underlie hygiene, neatness, order, obedience, faithfulness, thoughtfulness for others, all the things that underlie a civilized and refined life, as that which the average household has to offer. But this does not seem to me to be possible in the presence of servants. If in the average household the amount of work to be done could be so decreased by taking out the heavy tasks, as is the case in European countries, and if the equipment of the household could be improved as it doubtless will be very soon when we all use the things already invented and which are rapidly finding their way in, if the mother of the family can be trained to do this work well, and if she gives it the dignity it merits, then we shall have an educational plant for the training of little children such as has never yet been known.

Meeting adjourned.

SATURDAY EVENING, JUNE 28.

The Home Economics Building was formally opened this evening, a reception being given by the Department of Home Economics to the American Home Economics Association and the Cornell faculty. Informal addresses were made in the Assembly Hall by ex-President Andrew D. White, Acting-President T. F. Crane, Dean Liberty Hyde Bailey, Miss Van Rensselaer, and Miss Rose, after which the guests were received in the practice apartment. The opportunity to see the beautiful building in gala dress was much appreciated.

On Sunday at 3.15 President George E. Vincent, of the University of Minnesota, spoke to the Association in Sage Chapel on "Vocations and Culture." Dean Liberty Hyde Bailey introduced President Vincent. The latter spoke with the vitality, the definiteness and the inevitable right word that President Vincent has taught us to expect. Later in the afternoon there was a sunset service out of doors with special music.

MONDAY, JUNE 30, 2 P.M.

General subject, "The Industrial Side of Home Economics." Presiding officer, Miss Isabel Ely Lord.

The first paper was by Miss Mary Quinn, Pratt Institute, on the "Basic Work in Art, in Preparing Teachers of Home Economics." Mr. C. E. Prosser, Executive Secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, gave a most interesting address on "The Girl in Industry." This was followed by a paper by Miss Mary E. Parker, of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia, on "Preparing the Girl for Industrial Vocations."

There was discussion of the papers from which a few extracts are given:

Miss Sarah L. Arnold: One difficulty we have experienced is that we can not find teachers for the schools where girls must be taught in preparation for trades. It did not matter very much whether they were to be taught dress-making, but it was agreed by those who were associated with Mr. Prosser in Massachusetts that it was essential that the women who went to teach in these schools should be those who understood the principles of industry, who should know what a day's work meant, and who should understand the homes from which they were to work later. Home economics has not yet met the demand for teachers who can teach home economics to the working girl. We are trying to do it, and each one of us is trying to work out some key by which it will be done, but the people will not

have confidence that we have been so schooled in household economics that we can go into the work rooms or the industrial schools and teach, unless we ourselves have more industrial training. It is perfectly clear that the young woman who is to teach in the industrial schools should be put through a course of industrial apprenticeship.

Dr. Ira S. Wile continued the discussion. He said: We must recognize the origin of this problem. Dr. Prosser prophesies that in ten years we will have all children going to school until sixteen. In the first place the country as a whole has not adequate educational laws; you can not tell, then, about educational guidance unless you can compel children to be where you can give them the education and the guidance so that the necessity for compulsory education may be realized. I am not quite so optimistic as Dr. Prosser. I wish I were, but I cannot say it will be in ten years when I realize not only the fact of the term of years which a child must go to school, but also when I consider that some states only have four or five months in their school year.

You cannot guarantee that any child is going to remain in a vocation simply because you put him there. Who is to choose? Is the child capable of deciding what his life work shall be? How many of you knew at fourteen or sixteen what you wanted to do later? How many times have you changed your mind about it since fourteen or sixteen; how many are sure what you will be doing five years from now? We have the same problem in industrial education. We must not hold up that beautiful emblem of income, and gauge vocational work by money. The thing to teach to all is the joy of living, the value of honest work, the joy of doing something and doing it well and taking an interest in it, and whether we do it on the productive side or the distributive side it does not matter at all.

Meeting adjourned.

MONDAY, JUNE 30, 8 P.M.

General subject, "The Extension Side of Home Economics." Presiding officer, Miss Martha Van Rensselaer. The speaker of the evening was Professor Otis W. Caldwell, of the University of Chicago, whose able address was on "Home Economics and Rural Extension." The chairman then called on extension workers present to speak briefly, each on her own work. There were speakers from thirteen states and one Canadian province, as follows: Washington, Louisiana, Montana, Nebraska, New York, Vermont, New Jersey, Iowa, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Georgia, Maine, Maryland and Quebec. Delaware and Florida also had extension workers at the annual meeting.

Meeting adjourned.

TUESDAY, JULY 1, 10 A.M.

General subject, "The Educational Side of Home Economics." Presiding officer, Mrs. Mary Hinman Abel. Papers were presented by Miss Anna W. Williams, Kansas State Agricultural College, on "Some Results from a Study of the Factors in Bread Making;" Miss Cora E. Gray, University of Illinois, on "Problems in the Preparation and Use of Foods;" Professor J. F. Snell, MacDonald College, on "The Basic Work in Science, in Preparing Teachers of Home Economics;" and Miss Sarah J. MacLeod, Pratt Institute, on "An Experiment in Teaching Economics." In the discussion which followed, the following persons spoke: Dr. A. C. Blood, Simmons College; Miss Josephine T. Berry, University of Minnesota; Dr. J. F. Snell; Miss Flora Rose; Mrs. Alice P. Norton, University of Chicago.

Meeting adjourned.

TUESDAY, JULY 1, 8 P.M.

Presiding officer, Acting-President T. F. Crane, Cornell University. The first address of the evening was by Mr. H. F. J. Porter, Secretary of the Efficiency Society, who gave an interesting account of the aims and the work of that society. The main feature of the evening's program was the President's address, by Miss Sarah Louise Arnold, an address which summed up the purposes and possible results of this meeting.³

At the close of Miss Arnold's address Mrs. Abel presented the report on the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, already given.⁴ Miss Arnold then called on the Secretary, who asked those present to make pledges toward the \$500 fund necessary to start the new Homemakers' Department in the JOURNAL. Pledges were made at the close of the meeting, and in twenty-four hours the whole sum was given or pledged by members present. No better proof of the vitality of the Association has ever been given than the ease with which this sum was raised.

Meeting adjourned.

³See p. 317.

⁴See p. 365.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 2, 10 A.M.

General subject, "The Housekeeper's Side of Home Economics." Presiding Officer, Dr. Benjamin R. Andrews. After a brief report by the Secretary regarding the special JOURNAL fund, Mrs. Abel gave a further statement of the help asked from the Association in the establishment and maintenance of the Homemakers' Department in the JOURNAL.

Dr. Andrews then introduced Mrs. J. George Frederick, author of "The New Housekeeping," who spoke in a most stimulating way on "Efficiency in the Household."

Dean Liberty Hyde Bailey, who had been unable to be present at the session on this subject, then addressed the Association on extension work. He spoke especially of home economics work at Cornell University, and said in part:

If we are trying to work educational processes out of the daily lives of the people, why then, of course, we must organize educationally the affairs and interests of women in the same way as we have the affairs and interests of men, but in a larger way. I do not like to think of home economics as resting merely upon the affairs of women; it rests still deeper than that, it rests upon the affairs of the home. As I tried to say here once before, there are some of us still old-fashioned enough to think that the home is an institution worth preserving, and all the enterprises that grow out of it, so that the home economics education is founded on the fundamental necessities of the race. It needs no apology and no explanation, except to persons who wish to have more information about it, so that in this institution we never asked permission to put it in. We merely put it in, and we have been confident from the first to the last that the work would prove itself in time. It has proved itself more rapidly than in the beginning I anticipated it would. Now the point I wish to leave is the point with which I began, and that is that this home economics work in the College of Agriculture at Cornell (and I hope it is the same all over the country) is not a concession to public demand; it lies in the nature of the case. If we are to have a real democracy, why then we must democratize for an educated people to the last of the folk in the homes and on the farms. I do not see how it is possible to have real democracy until we have a thoroughly developed home economics education.

A discussion on the "Best Way Yet" was to follow Mrs. Frederick's paper, but there was very brief time for it, and therefore it was decided to hold a special session in the evening for the discussion of this interesting topic before the regular meeting.

The final address of this session was a most valuable one by Miss Helen B. Young, on "The Relation of Home Planning to Home Economics." This was illustrated by lantern slides.

The sessions beginning Wednesday evening, July 2, through Friday morning, July 4, were under the charge of the Institution Economics Section and are separately reported.⁵

The annual elections were held on Thursday, July 3, officers being elected for the calendar year 1914. The report of the tellers, Mrs. B. H. Hyde and Miss C. A. Mulligan, was read at the evening session, as follows:

The total number of votes cast was 59. Officers received the vote and were duly elected as follows:

President, Sarah Louise Arnold, 59.

Vice-Presidents, Martha Van Rensselaer, 59, Abby L. Marlatt, 57; Benjamin R. Andrews, 58.

Secretary, Isabel Ely Lord, 57.

Treasurer, C. F. Langworthy, 58.

For members of the Council, to serve five years, Mrs. Mary H. Abel, Mrs. Alice P. Norton, Miss Ellen C. Sabin, Dr. Henry C. Sherman, Prof. Wm. Morse Cole, 57 each.

Nominating Committee, to serve five years, Miss Bertha M. Terrill.

There was but one scattering vote.

The final general session was held at 12 noon on Friday, July 4, when the flag of the Home Economics Building was raised. The President, Miss Arnold, presided, and asked for the report of the Committee on Resolutions, which was submitted.

Report of the Committee on Resolutions: The members of the American Home Economics Association have enjoyed the hospitality extended by Cornell University at their sixth annual meeting, therefore it is

Resolved, That we express to Cornell University our deep appreciation of its generous hospitality extended to us through the Department of Home Economics of its College of Agriculture.

Resolved, That we give special thanks to Acting President Crane, Ex-President Andrew D. White, Dean Liberty H. Bailey, and other members of the Cornell faculty, for their cordial welcome and their expressions of sympathy with our subject and aims.

Resolved, That we acknowledge a special indebtedness to the Department of Home Economics of the College of Agriculture; to Miss Van Rensselaer, Miss Rose, and their associates for the untiring efforts which have made possible the perfection of arrangement so noticeable at this meeting; and to the young women of the Frigga Fylge Club who have given of their personal services untiringly.

Resolved, That we extend our thanks to those not members of our Association who have contributed so much of value to our program: Mme. Alice Geubel de

⁵See p. 378.

la Ruelle, Envoy of the French Republic; Dr. Thomas Nixon Carver; Miss J. J. Eschenbrenner; President George E. Vincent; Mr. C. R. Prosser; Prof. Otis W. Caldwell; Mrs. J. George Frederick; Mr. H. F. J. Porter; Mrs. Annie L. Hansen, and Miss Emma Winslow.

Resolved, That the Association express its gratitude for the assurance of sympathy with its aims and the expressions of the spirit of coöperation offered in the greetings of delegates to this meeting from associations with kindred aims.

Resolved, That we express our thanks to members of the Cornell Faculty and others for the enjoyable excursions that have been arranged, and to the many who have extended social courtesies.

JOSEPHINE T. BERRY, *Chairman*,
CATHARINE A. MULLIGAN,
C. F. LANGWORTHY.

Special resolutions were presented at previous sessions as follows: There has been one thought so often and so universally voiced throughout the days of this conference, that your committee finds itself under obligation to give it expression in advance of its formal report to be presented Friday.

The members of the Association recognize everywhere the wisdom and untiring efforts of Miss Van Rensselaer and Miss Rose in providing for their comfort and pleasure. They deeply appreciate their unselfish service, and will carry with them the inspiration of the fuller revelation of the power and personality of these women.

Resolved, That we extend to Dean Liberty H. Bailey the sincere thanks of the entire Association for the inspiration and encouragement gained from his philosophical analysis of the present and his vision of the future of home economics in education and in the national life.

Resolved, That the American Home Economics Association wishes to assure the Honorable Andrew D. White that it appreciates fully the honor conferred by his presence and participation in its meetings.

JOSEPHINE T. BERRY, *Chairman*,
CATHARINE A. MULLIGAN,
C. F. LANGWORTHY.

Mme. Alice Geubel de la Ruelle offered her formal thanks to the Association and to Cornell University for the hospitality offered her as an official of the French Republic.

Dean Liberty Hyde Bailey read one of his own poems. The main address was made by ex-President Andrew D. White, of Cornell University, who said in part:

My office today is a very simple one. It is simply to spread before you, or rather call your attention to, the flag of our country. I need not tell you how poets and orators, historians and philosophers, men and women of light and leading in every field have looked with joy and hope to the American flag. Devotion to the flag, devotion to a symbol, devotion to anything which represents even in the most humble and plainest way the great ideas on which a nation is founded, becomes in some sense, and justly, a part of the religion of that country.

There have been in the minds of some thinking men from time to time doubts as to whether the devotion to the sign, to the symbol, to the emblem, did not too much outweigh that which sign and symbol and emblem represented and covered. But as we review the history of the development of our race we shall see that after the sign, symbol, the banner or flag has been not merely to help but to necessitate.

There are great triumphs to be won in the development of the human race, and my hope is that this flag will symbolize to the world a triumph such as shall rise at least above all others to the honor and to the glory of our country. Everyone of us has as his duty to make the reputation of his country better and better, the reputation of his country, of his republic, which is to be a real republic, not merely one of political intrigue, merely of pretenses and reform. An anarchial jumble of propositions of reforms and of progress amounts to nothing. If that is the case it will go down as other republics and as other anarchies have gone down. Then let us hope for something better. No country has ever made provision for the education of its citizens as has our own. All that must count for something. That we do our duty, that and that alone is the way in which the American flag shall be truly lifted and honored in the eyes of the nations. Those of you who in your Christian churches, and indeed in the Jewish synagogues, read the poetry of that race from which so much of our religion has come, will remember one of the most noble psalms in which this line occurs, a very noble and beautiful line, worthy to be repeated in every prayer and in all praise always: "In the name of God I will lift up my banner."

Miss Sarah Louise Arnold then adjourned the sixth annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association.

ISABEL ELY LORD,
Secretary.

INSTITUTION ECONOMICS SECTION.

The sessions from Wednesday evening until Friday noon were in charge of the Institution Economics Section, and the same live interest that has characterized the meetings of the Institution Section for the past three years was manifest here at Cornell.

At the Wednesday evening meeting, Miss Arnold introduced Miss Maria Elliott of Simmons College, who, as a pupil and friend of Mrs. Richards, gave the following tribute to the two members of the "Old Guard" present—Mrs. Dewey and Mrs. Abel:

"Among the beautiful pictures that hang on memory's walls for a few in this large company are bits of mountain heights and forest aisles in the Adirondacks. Climbing the heights in the early morning or following the woody trails at dusk is a woman whose very name to this audience is an inspiration and a blessing—Ellen H. Richards. Much of her spirit of inspiration she drew from these seasons of

communion with the grandeur and grace of nature's handiwork. But she was seldom there for long, or alone. She knew, as no one else could know, how much she needed the ever-ready help of two other women—staunch supporters and sympathetic friends. Her child, the American Home Economics Association, is glad to follow her still, in recognizing the hearty coöperation, sane guidance and gentle patience of Mrs. Dewey and Mrs. Abel, two members of the "Old Guard" as Mrs. Richards loved to call the founders of the Lake Placid Conference. We are blessed in having you two with us this week and wish to express to you our confidence and love."

The first paper of the evening was given by Dr. Ira S. Wile of New York City, on "Standards of Living." He was followed by Mrs. Annie Dewey, Lake Placid Club, New York, on "Organization, Man Power and Rewards," after which Mrs. Dewey explained charts on organization of college dormitories, women's clubs, and other institutions. She also showed the series of blanks and printed directions to employees of the Lake Placid Club which showed the careful organization that is so suggestive to institution directors.

A third paper scheduled for this evening, but given on the one previous, was read by Mr. H. T. J. Porter, Secretary of the Efficiency Society, New York City, in which he emphasized the importance of efficient organization in institutions, noting illustrations from those in the industrial world.

The Thursday morning session, with Miss Van Rensselaer as chairman, was divided between the reports on Laundry Management and Lunch Room Management. Miss S. Maria Elliott, of Simmons College, as chairman of the Laundry Committee, gave a report of the year's work. She outlined the study that has been made on coöperative laundries, and reported in detail on the work of the Coöperative Laundry at Chatfield, Minn. She also told of the efforts that are being made to standardize marking of linen sent to laundries.¹

The School Lunch Section was in charge of Miss Mary E. L. Small of Buffalo, New York. She introduced Miss Boughton of Philadelphia, who explained the work of the Committee, and announced the section on School Feeding at the International Congress of School Hygiene to be held in Buffalo, August 25 to 30. Miss Small said that as it was felt that the subject of school lunches both in the high schools and elementary schools has been dealt with comprehensively at the past two meetings of the Association, the main point to be

¹ This report will be published in the December Journal of Home Economics.

considered at this meeting was the training of the person in charge of the school lunches. Miss Lillian Kemp of Drexel Institute gave a paper on "The Training of the School Dietitian," outlining the work as given at Drexel Institute. This was followed by a paper on "Teaching of Meals in Regular Class Work," by Miss Margaret L. Durdan, Buffalo, New York.

The question of furnishing meals free to children suffering from malnutrition was discussed fully, and a report of this discussion will be printed with the papers.

Before the Thursday evening meeting an informal discussion on the subject of equipment for large numbers in institutions was held, Miss Van Rensselaer acting as chairman. The question of bread mixers with electric motors was discussed, both from the economical and sanitary viewpoints. The most satisfactory kind of dishwashing machines was next taken up, and experiences were quoted regarding machines showing least breakage of dishes. Suggestions were also offered as to the successful use of soap preparations in these machines. Dr. Andrews referred to the Industrial Code of the State of Wisconsin drawn up for the bakers of that state as a source of information for equipment for large kitchens.

The major part of the evening was given over to papers showing the work of the Visiting Housekeeper or Domestic Educator. This community worker who deals with groups of people in their homes has many problems allied to the institution worker. The papers that were given were: "An Experiment: The Visiting Housekeeper's Work in Detroit," Mrs. Bessie Bishop Bothwell, Visiting Housekeeper, The Associated Charities, Detroit, Mich. "Two Years of Work as Domestic Educator," Mrs. Annie L. Hansen, North American Civic League for Immigrants; "Home Economics in Social Work," Miss Winifred S. Gibbs, Supervisor, Home Economy Department, The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; "Possibilities in the Work of the Municipal Visiting Housekeeper," Miss Emma Winslow, lately Visiting Housekeeper of the Young Women's Christian Association, Cleveland, Ohio.

The Friday morning session, in charge of Dr. Wm. Morse Cole, Chairman of the Committee on Institutional Accounts, was devoted to business administration and the subject was "Unit Costs." Mr. Freeman, the first speaker, showed how unit costs have been used in many cases of manufacture as tests of efficiency, and reports on studies made on unit costs in hospitals were given by Mr. English.

A fuller report of this interesting discussion will be printed later with the papers. Mr. K. C. Livermore, Professor of Farm Management of New York State College of Agriculture, gave a paper on "Institutional Farm Management."

The Institution Section will carry forward its work through the coming year with committees actively at work on Dormitory, Lunch Room, and Laundry Management; Organization and Efficiency in Administration; Training in Institutional Management; Institutional Accounting; Dietary Administration, and so forth. The names of the members of these committees may be obtained from the secretary of the Institution Economics Section, Miss Emma H. Gunther, Teachers College, New York City.

EMMA H. GUNTHER,
Secretary.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION AT RICHMOND.

The American Home Economics Association held a meeting in connection with the Southern Education Conference at Richmond, Virginia, in April. The meeting was held in the auditorium of the Jefferson Hotel, and was attended by some fifty members of the Conference. Dr. B. R. Andrews of Teachers College, Columbia University, vice-president of the Association, presided and made the opening address in which he outlined briefly the history of the Association and the educational work which home economics is attempting to accomplish. Miss Isabel Ely Lord, director of the School of Household Arts and Sciences at Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, and secretary of the Association, was the second speaker. Miss Lord described the practice house which has recently been added to the equipment at Pratt Institute, and which consists of a residence located near the Institute and used as a residence school, students living there in groups.

The third speaker was Dr. C. F. Langworthy, chief of Nutrition Investigations, Department of Agriculture, and treasurer of the Association. Dr. Langworthy spoke of the Syllabus of Home Economics which has recently been published by the Richards Memorial Fund of the American Home Economics Association. Informal discussion followed the speeches.

Although the work is widespread in the Southern States and

meetings of local organizations numerous, this meeting was the first formal gathering of home economics workers in the South, and as such seems especially significant. It is hoped that next year under the auspices of the national organization and the Southern Education Conference there will be a larger meeting.

SECOND INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS FOR THE TEACHING OF HOUSEHOLD ECONOMY, GHENT, BELGIUM.

The Second International Congress for the Teaching of Household Economy met at Ghent, Belgium, June 15-18, 1913. This meeting followed immediately upon that of the International Association of Women Farmers, and it was most interesting to note how closely these two movements are allied in the continental countries. As is usual at such meetings not the least stimulating feature was the opportunity of coming in contact with so many earnest workers interested in furthering the same movement, people from different countries, speaking several languages, in many cases having different problems, but all with one idea in common, that of spreading the gospel of "right living." Nationality and class distinctions were forgotten, and each was eager to discover anything that would be of help in meeting a particular problem and at the same time to give the benefit of her experience to others.

The program committee is to be commended upon the excellent way in which the preliminary work was handled. Realizing that the actual time for the proceedings would of necessity be too short for a full discussion and that many who could contribute much of value would not be present, the program was arranged months in advance and specialists in various lines of work were asked to contribute. These articles were published a sufficiently long time in advance to enable those interested to read them and become familiar with the main facts under discussion. In some of the sections, in order to make the subject still more clear these resolutions were printed and distributed upon the day when they were to be offered. While this plan made possible a much more valuable body of subject matter it had the defect of making the meetings themselves both formal and set in character.

The program was divided into four sections as follows: I, Home Economics Instruction in the Primary and Family School; II, Home Economics Teaching for Adults in conjunction with the Secondary Schools; III, Training of Teachers for Home Economics Work; IV, Progress of Home Economics Teaching in the different Countries and the Importance of this teaching from a Social Point of View.

It is impossible in so short a space to give a full account of the program. Those who are interested in the details are referred to the preliminary reports and the verbal proceedings.¹

To the American teachers probably the most interesting feature of the meeting had to do with the development of the work in the several countries. In America

¹ These five volumes may be obtained by sending five francs (\$2) to the Secrétariat Général du Dixième Congrès de l'Enseignement Ménager, 19, Rue Williams, Bruxelles, Belgique.

we are so isolated that we know comparatively little of what the European countries are doing along these lines. It was interesting to note the stimulus that had been given to the development of the work by the meeting at Friburg in 1908,² and also to see how the work of the schools has been supplemented by other forces, agricultural and social. They have realized in Europe, as we have only commenced to realize, that the solution to all these problems lies in education, and especially home education. As Miss Bertha Trussel³ expressed it "Home economics teaching has made much progress in Switzerland since the time of the last Congress. It now seems that in the teaching of this subject lies the solution of such important social problems as the prevention of infant mortality, tuberculosis, and drunkenness."

France, Switzerland, and Belgium are the three countries from which the work has spread, and in many other countries where the work has been recently introduced it has been avowedly patterned after that in one of these countries. They have also supplied many of the teachers who have introduced the work into new fields, for it is only after the work has taken hold and the demand for teachers is felt that the special schools for training teachers have been established. In all of the countries reporting, from Norway and Sweden to Italy, and from England to Roumania, there has been a remarkable development since 1908, probably due in part to the stimulus given to public sentiment by the last congress held in Switzerland at that time, and in part to the general awakening of the people to all social problems.

The discussions of all the sections overlapped. It was probably the first section upon which the most of the interest centered. It is in the primary grades that the work is first introduced, and it is often given here when not elsewhere in the course. This is what would be expected when the work is given from a social point of view. It must be given where it will reach the greatest number of pupils. The actual age varies in the different countries according to the school laws, but in general it is offered for the last two years of compulsory attendance so that it reaches all of the pupils and at a time when they are most likely to be interested in it. The ages of the children are given as from eleven to fourteen years. In some places work is offered before this time, but in general it is conceded to be better to have the school concentrate upon the practical work during the last two years, and to make an effort to obtain the coöperation of the home during the earlier years. While the children seem younger than those in our sixth, seventh, and eighth grades the courses seem to correspond to those offered there.

Though this primary course is definitely required of the girls in some localities, in some it may be optional. In other places, to the primary course with or without home economics, is added a two year course with the special needs of the girl in view. These are called schools of the fourth degree, and the work in them varies, depending upon the amount of previous work and the future needs of the girl. These schools correspond in general to our continuation schools. Schools which correspond more closely to our ideas of continuation schools have been established in many places, and the extension of such schools is urged. Miss

² First International Congress for the Teaching of Household Economy, Friburg, Switzerland, 1908.

³ Volume IV of preliminary publication.

Wiltop-Konig⁴ describes them as they exist in Holland. Classes are arranged which meet only for certain hours on definite days and the work can be adapted to the needs and conveniences of the various working classes, and in some cases to the mothers in the homes. This attempt to meet the needs of the mother, together with the visiting of the teacher in the home, has done much to strengthen the bond between the school and the home and to secure the coöperation of the mother in the training of her children.

In England girls must attend school until they reach the fourteenth year, although those who attain to a certain standard of excellence are allowed to leave before, in the twelfth or thirteenth year. By introducing the home economics work in the eleventh year all of the students get at least a part of the training. Since those who leave early get only a portion of the course Miss Calder of Liverpool, suggests that all the domestic science be given in a special six months' course devoted entirely to this work and made compulsory for every girl.

For the rural localities where the work is badly needed and where it is not possible to support a full time school there are the so-called ambulatory or movable schools. These schools remain in the different localities varying lengths of time, usually about three months, and bring to the girls the training otherwise unattainable. In Holland⁵ these courses are conceded to be institutions of great importance for popularizing home economics in the country and for increasing prosperity and public health. In Yorkshire, England, such a school has been held in a furniture van fitted up as a small kitchen. This goes from place to place, stopping at some central point for four consecutive weeks. The financing of such schools varies in the different countries. Generally they are supported wholly or in part by the state working through the boards of education or agriculture.

As the work is being given more and more in the public schools the demand for properly trained teachers arises, and practically all of the countries have met this need by the establishment of normal schools. This training differs greatly in the various countries. The time spent in such training varies from a few months to two, or possibly three, years, depending upon the standards of the people and the amount of previous training of the students. Some of the schools require a normal school certificate for entrance. In general a larger proportion of time is spent on practical and less on theoretical training than in our own country. The tendency in the development of the training school is to lengthen the course. This is seen particularly when a comparison is made between the countries where the work has been recently established and those where the work is of longer standing and has become more static. The teachers previously trained meet this progressive spirit by forming study clubs for improvement.

Closely allied with the normal schools are frequently professional schools. In some of these the professional training is for the preparation of dietitians and housekeepers, while many have attached departments where young women of the lower classes may train themselves for cooks, waitresses, and ladies' maids.

⁴ Martine Wiltop-Konig, Professeur à la Nouvelle École Ménager d'Amsterdam. Sec. I.

⁵ M. E. Liliman-Bosch. Amsterdam. Les cuisines volants et les cours volant d'enseignement ménager.

In comparing the work in Europe with the work in America it seems that though the work in this country is developed along broader lines, in Europe the work is being better adapted to the needs of the people. This is indicated in Section 2, Resolution 4: "The organization of training in domestic economy shall be based upon local necessity and upon the particular requirements of each category of pupils in such a manner as to make the best use of every material and pedagogical means at hand." Section III, Resolution 35: "Teachers of domestic economy shall be recruited, as far as possible, in the districts in which they will be called upon to teach."

At the final meeting two interesting sets of resolutions were offered, the first of which was presented by the International Committee and related to the International Office for Instruction in Home Economics at Friburg. This office was established by the Congress, but the work has been greatly crippled by the death of the former director shortly after his appointment. A new director, M. L. Genoud, has been appointed and the work promises to be most interesting and valuable. A visit to this office at Rue des Alpes, Friburg, Switzerland, is one that will be of value to anyone interested along these lines. In this office is a collection of home economics periodicals and the texts used in the various countries. American and English texts are conspicuous by their absence. The writer had the pleasure of leaving the first *JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS* there, and we may well be proud that there was nothing there that can compare with it.

The last of the resolutions offered was the natural result of trying to compare courses under so many different nomenclatures. This resolution was offered by a committee of teachers from Holland: "It is recommended to issue before the next congress is in preparation, an exact compendium, provided with notes of explanation, of the system of education (elementary, secondary, and of higher and technical instruction) in the different countries, stating the ages at which the average pupils enter and leave the schools, so that everybody in drawing up the reports may know how educational matters are arranged abroad in order that the confusion of denomination and signification—from which at this congress difficulties repeatedly arose—may be prevented in future."

Let us do our part in the support of the International Office and in helping in the compendium for which the need is expressed above, and when the Congress of 1915 is held let us see to it that America is more largely represented than in 1913.

LOUISE STANLEY.

FOURTH INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON SCHOOL HYGIENE.

The Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene, the first meeting of this Congress on American soil, was held at Buffalo, New York, August 25 to 30. The meetings were held under the patronage of President Wilson, and the general sessions were presided over by Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus of Harvard University. The meetings were full of interest and were attended by delegates from fifteen foreign countries in addition to those from the United States and Canada. The program was divided into three sections, (1) The Hygiene of School Buildings,

Grounds, Material, Equipment and Up-Keep; (2) The Hygiene of School Administration, Curriculum and Schedule; and (3) Medical, Hygienic and Sanitary Supervision of Schools. The sections were subdivided as follows: Section 1: School buildings and their equipment; Open-air schools; The ventilation, heating and cleaning of school buildings. Section 2: Status of school hygiene and methods of instruction in city, village and country schools; Instruction in hygiene; Fatigue and nervousness in school children; Mental hygiene and the hygiene of the mentally abnormal child; Play and athletics; School hygiene in relation to the home and the community. Section 3: Medical inspection; School nurses and school clinics; The exciting and contributory causes of disease and physical defects in school children; Crippled children; The conservation of vision; Symposium on health; supervision of college and university students; Symposium on oral hygiene; Symposium on school feeding; Symposium on school illumination; Symposium on sex hygiene; Symposium on tuberculosis among school children; Symposium on child labor; Symposium on mental hygiene. In addition to the above sessions there were general open meetings, conferences, clinics, and consultations.

The exhibits from the various states and from Mexico and Sweden were most interesting. There was a good showing of illustrative material for use in teaching home economics, the exhibit attracting the most attention being the charts prepared by Dr. C. F. Langworthy, shown as they are used in the Buffalo schools, set in a deep frame and hinged, so that only one chart is shown at one time.

The symposium on school feeding was arranged by the School Lunch Committee of the American Home Economics Association. Miss Caroline L. Hunt presided at the sessions and Mrs. Lucian Howe and Miss Euphemia Diem were the vice-chairmen. Mrs. Louise Stevens Bryant, secretary of the session was unable to be present on account of illness, and Miss Alice C. Boughton acted as secretary. The following papers were read: "History and Present Status of the School Feeding Movement," Louise Stevens Bryant, Philadelphia (read by Dr. Lucas); "Medical Inspection and the Nutrition of School Children," Ira S. Wile, New York; "Malnutrition and Mental Defectives," Helen MacMurphy, Toronto; "Special Studies in Correlation of Malnutrition and Disease," John Aulde, M.D., Philadelphia; "Training of School Dietitians," Caroline L. Hunt, Washington; "Administration of School Lunches in Cities," Alice C. Boughton, Philadelphia; "Relation of Menus to Standard Diets," Mabel Hyde Kittredge, New York; "The Educational and Social Possibilities of School Feeding," Mary E. L. Small, Buffalo; "Warm Lunches in Rural Schools," Mary L. Bull, St. Paul; "History and Development of Lunches in High Schools," Julia Pulsifer, Boston; "High School Lunches under School Board Control," Emma Smedley, Philadelphia; and the following paper was read by title: "Cantines Scholaires," by Leon Meyer, Medical Inspector, Schools of Paris.

There were many social features to the Congress, evening receptions at the Twentieth Century Club, the University Club, the Buffalo Club; an automobile trip followed by tea at the country clubs; a trip to Niagara Falls; a luncheon for the School Lunch Session at the Chapter House, the club house of the women teachers association of the public schools, and many informal entertainments at private homes.

The next meeting of the Congress will be held at Brussels, Belgium, in 1915.

THE Journal of Home Economics

Home, Institution, School

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AMERICAN COOKERY:

OR THE ART OF DRESSING

VIANDS, FISH, POULTRY, AND
VEGETABLES.

And the best mode of making
PUFF-PASTES, PIES, TARTS, PUDDINGS, CUS-
TARDS AND PRESERVES.

AND ALL KINDS OF

CAKES,

FROM THE IMPERIAL PLUM,
TO PLAIN CAKE.

Adapted to

THIS COUNTRY AND ALL GRADES OF LIFE.

BY AN AMERICAN ORPHAN.

Brattleborough:
Published by John Holbrook.
1819.

COOKERY.

31

SYLLABUBS.

To make a fine syllabub from the cow.
Sweeten a quart of cider with double refined sugar, grate nutmeg into it, then milk your cow into your liquor, when you have thus added what quantity of milk you think proper, pour half a pint or more, in proportion to the quantity of syllabub you make, of the sweetest cream you can get all over it.

A nuptial syllabub.

Take two portingers of cream, and one of wine, grate in the skin of a lemon, take the whites of three eggs, sweeten it to your taste, then whip it with a whisk, take off the froth as it rises and put it into your syllabub glasses or pots, and they are fit for use.

To make a fine cream.

Take a pint of cream, sweeten it to your palate, grate a little nutmeg, put in a spoonful of orange flour, water and rose-water, and two spoonfuls of wine; beat up four eggs and two whites, stir it altogether one way over the fire till it is thick, have cups ready and pour it in.

Lemon cream.

Take the juice of four large lemons, half a pint of water, a pound of double refined sugar beaten fine, the whites of seven eggs, and the yolk of one beaten very well; mix all together, strain it, set it on a gentle fire, stirring it all the while and skim it clean, put into it the peel of one lemon, when it is very

T H E

Journal *of* Home Economics

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No. 5

MAN POWER, ORGANIZATION, AND REWARDS.¹

ANNIE DEWEY.

Lake Placid Club.

The tremendous development in efficiency during the last few years has been almost wholly concentrated on industrial and commercial enterprises. The recent reading of a dozen or more books and pamphlets on these new methods of management, suggested bringing together in concise form such principles as seemed readily adaptable to our institution economics and other organizations which are not primarily for profit-making.

Every human being is a self contained motor which derives its own power or energy from the food eaten. The forces in a man, which really control the human machine, are his will, his desires, and his motives. Like electricity, this man power is not a visible force and the term efficiency which is used for the electric current has been transferred very generally to human achievement.

An ordinary machine like the steam engine uses only 6 to 10 per cent of the total heat value of the fuel for external work, while an electric motor frequently utilizes 90 per cent of the energy supplied to it. The human mechanism is superior to other machines because it is intelligent and self-directing and by properly exercising these powers it can increase the amount and effectiveness of its work.

This man power may spend itself in mere muscular or brute force which shovels ore and loads pig iron, or it may take higher forms of

¹Presented at the Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Ithaca, 1913.

energy in which the brain is the central power house, sending out currents which direct the building of bridges, railroads, tunnels and canals. Muscular effort may be stimulated by the lash, while the higher brain power is dependent on ideals, one single creative thought sometimes having greater value than all the labor of centuries. It is the invisible which makes the nation. The educated, trained men who possess this brain power as a rule do not have the normal appetite of the man who works out of doors with his hands and under our usual living conditions, for their comfort and convenience require their fuel in more expensive forms—sixty cents or more a day for raw food materials, with houses and general living conditions to correspond, while the peons digging the great drainage canal in Mexico lived on three cents a day. Italians, Bohemians and many foreigners are satisfied with ten to twenty cents, while our average American workman demands at least twenty-five cents a day for food alone. With the lower or muscular form of energy, it is quantity of work which counts; with the higher brain power it is quality for which men pay the price. Between the two there is a wide field where both physical and mental are equally necessary, but with all grades, the whole output is controlled by that invisible, intangible, indescribable ego-will (or ego-won't) which is largely a matter of inheritance but may be cultivated and developed with right environment.

Many experiments have been made by physiologists who were studying the endurance of the human animal and by engineers who wished to determine what fraction of a horse-power a man-power was (i. e., how many foot pounds of work a man could do in a day) but so far no law has been discovered which is an accurate guide to a maximum day's work for a first class workman. On some kinds of labor a man would be tired out in doing one-eighth horse-power while on others he would be no more tired by doing one-half horse-power of work. Finally, by graphic charts, representing each element of the work in curves which gave a bird's eye view, a world old law governing the tiring effect of heavy labor on a first class man was re-discovered and applied to this particular case and, says Mr. Taylor, "It is so simple in its nature that it is truly remarkable that it should not have been discovered and clearly understood years before." It corresponds to the work of the cart horse rather than that of the trotter and requires that a man should be under load for only a definite percentage of the day, and must be entirely free from load at frequent intervals, that is, rest must adequately balance exertion.

Muscular energy no longer counts for much, for man has learned to make the forces of nature work for him at a fraction of the cost of human energy. Some startling figures are given by a leading efficiency engineer, Harrington Emerson,² in comparing man power with machinery. "A man with a spade requires 560 seasons to turn over one square mile of land, 640 acres. With team and plow he can do it in 4 seasons while 12 men with three mechanical tractors and 51 plows in a gang can do the same work in 36 hours. Under these conditions, at \$2 a day, man-power costs, per horse-power, \$54,000 per year of 7500 hours. In a small gasoline engine it costs \$300 a year per horse-power; for large power installations, from \$20 to \$200 a year. Therefore man-power (thus applied) costs from 130 to 1350 times as much as uncarinate power. Thirty men, as men work, will yield one horse-power of energy each hour, but so will one to five pounds of coal. A ton of coal may be assumed to have the energy of five men for a whole year. On an average each adult man may be supplemented by twenty-two mechanical slaves whose keep is less than 1-400th of his own value at \$2 a day."

With men as with machines, unless every need and law is lived up to, they will refuse to work efficiently, often refuse to work at all. Therefore the first essential which makes possible the development of this power, in whatever form, is health—physical, mental, and moral—which depends on heredity, training and environment. By intensive agriculture, by perfecting seed and enriching soil, man has succeeded in raising five times as many potatoes per acre as the average for certain states and ten times as many as the average for the United States. With selected seed, fifty bushels per acre of wheat is considered as easily attainable where the actual yield has been only fourteen bushels. Whether potatoes or wheat, whether a grain of corn or a giant oak, each produces its kind, the value depending on soil and seed, but more than all else on the man who plants understandingly and believes in the possibilities of the crop. This germ of power, which exists in every human being, may be cultivated with even greater results. Its native soil is the home and on the living conditions and habits of life formed there depend the fuller development of this power which controls all other forces and is our most valuable possession.

Statistics show that in institution homes for children, however

²Twelve Principles of Efficiency. New York, 1913.

perfect the care, infant mortality is greater than in individual homes. It may be true that the instinctive love of parents for their young, and the personal influence, have some power like sunshine which nourishes and develops vitality, but the home which cares for health, for physical power only, has failed in its highest mission. It is in the development of character, in habits of industry, truth, and sincerity, in that mental and spiritual energy which enables man to harness the forces of nature and to control them, to master his own passions and weakness, to guide, instruct and lead others, that his highest power can be attained.

ORGANIZATION.

A new science of management, a new philosophy of labor has arisen which its advocates believe is destined to revolutionize our industrial system, with results as great as those which followed the transition from hand to machine production. Its growth has been a natural evolution. Conservation of natural possessions suddenly called attention to the limitless waste of human material going on everywhere in the world. Out of this grew the movement towards vocational guidance and this gave rise to scientific management in commerce and industry.

It aims to secure:

(1) The greatest degree of prosperity for both employers and employees.

(2) High wages for workmen, with low labor cost for employers sharing the benefit of lower cost of production with the consumers, the whole people, who really pay both wages and profits and in the end gain most from industrial improvements.

(3) The development of the science of the work, standardizing both equipment and working conditions. This means knowing in advance "what work is to be done, how it shall be done, when it shall be done, and what it shall cost. The whole realm of science is brought to the aid of the humblest workman and the man is considered before the dollar."

(4) Scientific selection of workmen with reference to their mental aptitudes, recognizing that no man will be skilled, contented, or happy at work for which he is not fitted. Pleasure in work, psychical influence, should make a man *want* to do a thing as it should be done.

(5) The elimination of wastes of all kinds, materials, time and human energy.

(6) Bringing together the best workers and the science of the work, with constant help and watchfulness of optimistic, tactful and determined leaders, possessing high ideals and sense of justice, who inspire the spirit of coöperation which makes both men and management move as one irresistible body. The executive sounds the keynote for his department. His power of getting work out of people, his business efficiency, depends on his power of supplying them with ideals. If he is inefficient his whole staff is demoralized.

(7) A definite task and a definite premium or bonus for all who, by special skill, perseverance, and intelligent following of instructions, accomplish results greater than the average laborer.

For success in adopting this new theory of production, the organization must be exactly adapted to the needs of the special work and one can not serve as a model for another where conditions vary.

The first essential in a good organization is a definite plan or ideal, then competent and forceful men, each selected solely with reference to his aptitude for the work required, whether as head or subordinate. There should be a logical, convenient arrangement of equipment, and proper environment not merely as a question of pleasant surroundings for employees but as a financial investment which pays.

The anatomy of an organization should be charted graphically showing the logical divisions of authority and expense. This should be done at the start. "If a man does not know where he is going, how can he choose the best road?"

The work should be analyzed, simplified, and each position clearly defined as to its duties, responsibilities and relations to other parts of the work. There should be standardized conditions and written standard-practice instructions. Oral orders cause confusion. Any large undertaking run without such instructions has little chance for progressive advance. The specifications of the purchasing department of the U. S. Navy are probably the most complete and modern directions ever printed, and cover every detail from construction of the ship's hulls to a dish cloth. Thousands of leaflets, planned and perfected by graduates of Annapolis, have been printed.

Every large organization should have a well equipped employment department in charge of expert character analysts who know the qualifications required for each kind of work and who select for each position the best obtainable human material. "The cause of waste," says Dr. Katherine Blackford, "lies in ignorance of human aptitude and the requirements for different kinds of work. A man is valu-

able in proportion to the thought, the psychical inspiration, and the happiness he puts into his work. A man doing work he does not love lacks enthusiasm, spontaneity, interest and concentration—therefore efficiency.” Those who are familiar with Dr. Blackford’s remarkable success in formulating and applying the principles of scientific character analysis, know that she has laid tribute on many sciences. To her everything about a man indicates his character, since the body is the soul’s equipment, without which the mind could not function. Blondes and brunettes, convex and concave faces, eyes, hair, the hand, handwriting, language, voice, gesture, walk, all have meaning, since expression tells what a man has done with his inherited qualities and what habits he has acquired.

The great factors in organization are the materials, methods, machines, money and men. Recognizing that the men are by far the most important, many investigations have been carried on in the Harvard psychological laboratory in recent years, the problem being to analyze definite economic tasks with reference to the mental qualities which are necessary or desirable for them, and to find methods by which these qualities can be tested. In “Psychology and Industrial Efficiency” Prof. Münsterberg describes many well planned experiments for testing such qualities as attention, memory, imagination, intelligence, judgment, space-sense, time-sense, ability to learn, etc. In judging the power of quick perception by quick response, the time between the mental stimulus and the reaction can be measured in thousandths of a second. Some typesetters never get beyond the 2500-em class, others with no more personal effort can set 5000 ems.

In the use of a well-known type setting machine it was found that speed depended on the ability to remember a large number of words before they are set, rather than on quickness of finger action, the same being true of typewriting. With the aid of the ergograph and graphic charts, progress in learning telegraphy and typewriting is traced, each stroke of a key, each completion of word or line, each glance at copy being recorded in exact time relations. Even mental fatigue can be accurately tested by use of the kymograph and graphic records. The need now is to secure definite norms and standards. In selecting human assistants, education, training, and physical strength are not so important as the inner attitudes, proclivities, and character, which after all determine the man or woman.

The psychologic element enters into almost every act of life. A large department store in which the expense of delivery was much

too heavy, instructed its hundreds of saleswomen, after every sale of moderate sized articles, to ask, "Will you take it with you?" in place of "May we send it to you?" This simple suggestion materially reduced the cost of delivery the following year. Experiments with motormen, and with ship and telephone service, show that those who are most successful in passing the tests, feel a distinct joy in the experiment while the others pass through painful moments of physical discomfort.

The cost of misfits (from office boy to president), of men who are physically, mentally, morally, and industrially unsuited to their work, is far greater than is usually realized. A man at 100 per cent efficiency doing 3000 hours of normal work would take 3000 hours, costing \$2100 for example, but a man of 30 per cent efficiency would take 10,000 hours, costing \$7000, the loss due to inefficiency being \$4900 on one man. At 80 per cent efficiency the loss is \$525 per man. Efficiency tests among wage earners in the same plant, under the same conditions and foremen, have shown variations between 30 and 120 per cent. By eliminating the men of lowest power, by defining clearly the ideals and duties of the work, and by character analysis, it is possible to increase efficiency 50-100 per cent.

Prof. Münsterberg suggests that, as many factories already employ scores of scientifically trained chemists and physicists, so professionally trained psychologists might become economically an important factor in a business organization. Increase in industrial efficiency is in the interest of both employers and employees, whose time can be reduced, wages increased, and level of life raised, with cultural gain to the economic life of the nation, as soon as every one can be brought to the place where his best energies may be unfolded and his greatest personal satisfaction secured.

Economic experimental psychology offers no more inspiring ideal than this adjustment of work by which mental dissatisfaction, depression and discouragement, may be replaced in our social community by overflowing joy and perfect inner harmony.

The ideal employment department will keep accurate records of the performance of every man and should establish a minimum wage. The coöperation of every worker, no matter how obscure his position, should be secured and interest in the welfare of the work as a whole be instilled. He should be familiar with the qualities considered ideal for his job, and should be inspired to strive for their attainment. Treat a man as a mere cog in the wheel and he will very likely be con-

tent to do as little work as possible and still draw his pay, with no thought of bettering conditions in his department.

Suggestion boxes are desirable, asking workmen to write out any improvement for the benefit of the work as a whole. Marshall Field & Co. have found it extremely profitable to offer their employees \$1 for each suggestion that is finally adopted. Many systems, good in theory, have failed when forced upon the workers, and conditions have been made worse than before the systems were attempted, while with coöperation they might have succeeded. Changes are seldom resented when advice is asked and the foreman is made to feel that he is responsible for them.

Recognizing efficiency as a world wide need and ideal, and accepting the general methods of scientific management, Mr. Harrington Emerson, in "The Twelve Principles of Efficiency," has developed a system of organization with high ethical and altruistic ideals, adopting the line and staff model which the Prussian army used so successfully in 1870. These principles almost without exception, may well be applied to our institution economics or other enterprises, whether for profit or philanthropic purposes.

These twelve principles of efficiency are:

- (1) Clearly defined ideals.
- (2) Common sense.
- (3) Competent counsel.
- (4) Discipline.
- (5) The fair deal.
- (6) Records—reliable, immediate, adequate, and permanent.
- (7) Despatching.
- (8) Standards and schedules.
- (9) Standardized conditions.
- (10) Standardized operations.
- (11) Written standard practice instructions.
- (12) Efficiency rewards.

When this new science is understood, public sentiment, the whole people, will insist that justice shall be done to them as consumers, as well as to the producers of wealth. It will demand the highest efficiency from both employers and employees. It will no longer tolerate attempts to drive men into harder work for lower pay, neither will it tolerate tyranny on the part of labor which demands shorter hours and one increase after another in pay, while at the same time it becomes less efficient. The sole aim should be the attainment of justice for all, through impartial scientific investigation of all the elements of

the problem. Scientific management makes a complete change in the mental attitude of both capital and labor toward each other and toward their duties and responsibilities. It means intimate and friendly coöperation, the development of each man to his highest power. It would increase both the necessities and comforts of life, shorten hours of labor, add opportunities for education, culture, and recreation, and would eliminate most of the causes for dispute and disagreement between men and management.

Many criticisms are made of the new methods: that the system is top-heavy, requires too many high priced supervisors and pushes the laborer beyond endurance; but, leaving these aside, there is still enough in its ideals—the fair deal, coöperation, records, standards, directions, stopping waste, fitting aptitudes to opportunities, and fair rewards—to warrant the belief that its general adoption would develop the working man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity.

REWARDS.

How shall the worker whose labor exceeds the minimum standard wage, be rewarded?

(1) Profit sharing has been tried and proved unsuccessful. Employees overestimate profits by not considering fixed expenses, depreciation, and general financial conditions of the country. It is unfair to share profits and not share losses.

(2) Piece wages are a premium on quantity rather than quality of work and require careful inspection. Piece rates are likely to be cut because increased output is due to expensive machinery, not to workman's skill. Piece work is a premium on strenuousness, which means greater effort, while efficiency means less effort for the same result. Piece wages are opposed by labor organizations.

(3) The premium or bonus system of wage payment theoretically shares the result of increased efficiency among employer, employee, and consumer, and is the best yet devised.

The Government has standardized the dollar, so that commercially there is exchange and equivalence, but in industrial equivalency we are still in the dark ages, though many methods have been evolved for paying variable wages for varying efficiencies. One system, probably the latest, has been tried and tested on a gigantic scale, one corporation having paid, in 1908, over \$600,000 in premiums under this plan which has been called the individual effort system.

It is based on the idea of buying labor or service on specification, there being a basic price with a premium for results superior to the specification, as in buying coal on specification. Overtime is considered a great evil as no man working persistently overtime can attain high average efficiency. Experiments have shown that fully 50 per cent more work can be turned out per man and machine if all the methods, machines, and men are toned up.

Until time and quality specifications or some form of equivalency is established for different kinds of work, the score card may serve as a temporary expedient, being in fact a brief statement of specifications and the ideals required for the job. Some sixty or more qualities which contribute to the success of the world's workers, vary in importance as the work varies. In addition, each human being, each individual motor is governed by his will, his ego or spiritual keynote, which sets a limit to his powers and is the ultimate measure of his capacity. It is this invisible quality for which we most need a measure, for it is the main spring of human action which gives the power to conquer difficulties, to use obstacles as stepping-stones, to hold to ideals. Some day science will doubtless give us this unit, perhaps in a form as simple as the thumb print which may identify the criminal or the pulsations of the heart which may prove whether the witness speaks truth or falsehood.

"The day wage system is doomed, for the whole tendency of the times, the whole teaching of the ages, demands a definite equivalent for labor; and our ability to measure accurately both quantity and quality is one of the measures of civilization." It is unjust that the reward of excellence should be denied the worker. Men are no more alike, nor more equal than are the stars and planets, than are men and women; and nature never intended they should be alike. For generations there will still be many of the world's incompetents, and the suggestion that the government establish a minimum wage at which employment in national works, reclamation of arid lands, harbor dredging, canals, and highways would be always open, would do away forever with the disgrace of the bread line.

The introduction of machinery for hand labor was from the very start opposed by the masses, as taking bread from the mouths of their children; but industrial history shows that in the end, the whole people receive the greater benefit coming from industrial improvements.

It is not through ignorance, revolution, fanaticism, and destruc-

tion that man rises to fuller powers and richer life. The things of the spirit, the invisible forces which make men great, are developed by education, evolution, sound judgment, and constructive measures. The supreme factor in such development is the home. As Mrs. Richards said years ago, "The future of America does not lie in railroads, in machines, in commerce, in agriculture. The future of our republic will be determined by the character of the American homes."

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PREPARATION FOR INDUSTRIAL VOCATION.¹

MARY E. PARKER.

William Penn High School, Philadelphia.

This paper does not deal with the problem of the girl of fourteen who cannot go to the high school, but with the girl of eighteen who is able to complete the four years' course in the new technical high schools such as we have in Philadelphia. It will discuss the preparation for the trades and industries and will attempt to answer the question, "Is the average modern technical high school for girls really a vocational school, and to what extent does it prepare for industrial vocations?"

It is generally assumed that a technical high school for boys gives the sort of training which has immediate economic value, and many parents are hoping that a course in a similar school for girls will enable

¹ Presented at the Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Ithaca, 1913.

the graduate to enter at once upon self-maintenance at a fair wage. In any attempt to prepare for industrial life, the technical high school for girls has a much more difficult problem than the similar school for boys. Boys are to be prepared for certain definite, and often local vocations in which their service is to be to a greater or less degree permanent. Most of the girls, however, are to go only temporarily into a much more limited number of vocations, and ultimately into one distinctly domestic. Since our public schools owe their financial support to the accepted principle that the body politic taxes itself, not primarily to serve the individual, but to further the best permanent good of the social organism as a whole, it follows logically that the public school should give to its girls that sort of training which will broaden their lives and also make them capable of the highest degree of permanent economic efficiency. The years of a girl's economic independence are few in comparison with the years in which she will probably spend the large proportion of her own family income for the necessities of food, clothing, and shelter; and this fact looms so large that, fortunately or unfortunately, according to the point of view, in many individual cases it overshadows the need for an immediate means of self-support.

It is the purpose in this paper to discuss the question of the preparation of the high school girl for industrial life not in an abstract or general way, but definitely in the light of our experience in the William Penn High School for Girls in Philadelphia, and so I must be more or less personal, and will frankly tell of our difficulties as well as indicate some of the encouraging features of our work. On general principles, the optimistic and constructive attitude of mind is the more productive, but there are times when frank recognition of difficulties is salutary, particularly when people are at work on what is still a new problem.

The William Penn High School is, in the pedagogical parlance of the day, of the type called "cosmopolitan." The nucleus of it was the large and successful Commercial School for Girls, but when the school was entirely reorganized and moved into its great new building, other courses were added. Now it sends, each half year, a number of girls to the city Normal School; each year its college entrance class is larger and a steadily increasing number of girls elect the Home Economics course, from which it has just graduated its first class. Since, however, the Commercial School was for years highly successful in fitting its graduates for self-support and placing them at once

in good positions, the enrollment of the school at present is overwhelmingly commercial, and the girl who looks forward to immediate self-support as soon as she graduates sees in the commercial subjects a preparation for a vocation in which the supply never seems to equal the demand, a vocation which, even before she receives her diploma, offers to her a fair wage. Such a course is, in the strictest sense of the word, "vocational," and sends a girl out ready to earn at once a fair livelihood.

In the definitions of vocational education which accompany some of the recent legal enactments, courses in cookery and sewing are grouped with vocational subjects, probably on the ground that home-making is in truth a very definite vocation and should be recognized as such; but it seems advisable not to use the term in connection with the technical courses in public high schools for girls, but to use, instead, the words "Home Economics." A good many parents may be somewhat in doubt as to the exact meaning of "Economics," but at any rate it suggests getting the most out of what one puts in when one has to do with home-making. The popular meaning of "vocation," on the contrary, is pretty clear to the average person; and the word stands for the kind of daily activity which brings to the worker the wherewithal to live. The natural inference, then, is that a course, calling itself vocational, prepares directly for specific vocations outside the home. There is in that term at least an implicit promise which cannot be fulfilled, that is to say, the average technical high school for girls does not prepare its graduates for immediate self-support on a scale such as to make it rank with the commercial course in vocational value. Accordingly, as each half year has brought its entering class of five hundred or more, we have met them all and told them of the possibilities there are in the various fields, but if a girl decided to elect this course, we have said, without any attempt at concealment, that a girl who feels that she must support herself as soon as the four years' course ends could not expect to earn a wage which would be equal to that earned by her friend who had elected the commercial course. She has been told, however, that if she could give two additional years to study or a kind of apprenticeship, the vocational possibilities would be more varied and the remuneration more generous.

Our course is rather more academic than is generally given in schools called technical, but it does not seem that an increase in the amount of technical work would by any means solve the problem. The most

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difficult elements of the situation would still remain, and it is a highly significant fact that our teachers of technical subjects, who are themselves experienced, intelligent women, with a broad outlook upon life, strongly oppose any increase in the amount of technical work because such increase would necessarily mean a curtailing of the academic work. For genuine permanent efficiency, they feel that it is a kind of penny-wise economy to develop a high degree of technique at the expense of a girl's general education. Furthermore we are agreed that the difficulty lies not so much within the school as without. It is a difficult thing, in a four years' high school course to make education the exact thing which the industrial world wants, and it is not easy, on the other hand, to prove to the industrial and professional world the value to them of the thing which we think worth while for the girl. In some vocations it is hard to persuade people that a girl of eighteen has sufficient maturity to undertake work for which we think she is trained. The most difficult element of the problem still remains in the fact that few girls of eighteen are actually mature enough to fill the positions which are desirable, offer a fair stipend, and involve corresponding responsibility.

At the very core of the matter lies our chief difficulty. The body politic taxes itself that its daughters may have that education which shall best "fit them for life," and for the majority of them this should include preparation for permanent economic efficiency in the home. On this account it is pretty generally agreed that the school supported by public taxation ought to teach the needlecrafts and the wisest use of food materials; but right here we are met by the obstinate fact that there are in average communities only a few really desirable opportunities open to girls of eighteen who have had such training. The high school graduate who wishes to specialize in dressmaking is not mature enough to enter upon a position in charge of other workers or to take alone the responsibility of handling other people's materials, but she is too mature and too intelligent to accept the monotonous, highly specialized work, long hours, uncongenial surroundings, and small pay of the workshop, which would, in passing, irk far less the girl of sixteen, unless she has some rather unusual mental qualities. It is a well recognized fact that, the greater the need for immediate financial return, the smaller is the power to see future possibilities and the greater the impatience with present conditions; and we have felt that one of our chief duties to the few girls who went out from the school at the close of the last school year with the purpose of fol-

lowing the dressmaker's trade, was to develop a mental attitude which should enable them to take long views of their lives and work. If a girl can look upon a day's work as a necessary stepping stone, if she knows how to discriminate between having proper initiative, and being obnoxiously presuming, and if she has native ability, then our training will stand her in good stead. Our girls apparently, do appreciate this fact, and are willing to take what is open to them, knowing that if they make good, better things will come.

Most pleasant relations have existed between the school and the great John Wanamaker store. The General Manager of the Philadelphia store, with heads of several departments, has given our plans most courteous and considerate hearing; the director of all the John Wanamaker workrooms in Philadelphia and New York has visited our class rooms; they have offered to admit our girls under special arrangement, watching them closely and keeping a careful card catalogue record of their progress; and yet all we can look for is an initial wage of \$6.00 with an annual increase of a dollar a week until \$9 a week is reached. They were particularly interested in some of our color work, and were very ready to admit that a girl who had had our training in dressmaking and in applied art ought to prove a valuable worker. But even with this favorable consideration the initial wage is low, and it yet remains to be seen how well the plan will work.

Private shops offer no better inducements, and probably the most promising immediate opening is the opportunity to assist a good dressmaker who goes from house to house by the day. Work of this kind carried on independently, a little later, will probably attract a good many girls, but this, too, has its drawbacks and only a girl in this free country of ours who is of large calibre and unusual independence will accept with equanimity the social position which results. As a good dressmaker said to one of our own department last month, speaking of her next engagement, "I always go to the table with the family when I go there, but Mr. . . . never lets me forget that I am the family seamstress."

Some of the responsible positions in the dressmaking trade are very good, but they are not numerous enough to be seriously considered, and are generally filled by experienced women who have proved their worth to their employers. Our only hope is that our girls, too, may prove their worth, and do so in a shorter time on account of the training they have had. In fact, every technical high school has highly encouraging successes to prove what can be done, but it does not seem

probable that the number is sufficiently large to warrant us in holding out the hope that such good fortune will befall every girl.

Looking now to the vocations open to a graduate who has specialized in cooking, we find that she is admirably qualified to earn for herself at once a weekly equivalent of more than the business girl receives, if she will go out as cook or housemaid, but one does not need to say that this is absolutely out of the question.

In Liverpool I was interested in a school of domestic science which took the girls, as soon as they left school at fourteen, and gave them a good solid year of practical work in cooking, sewing, laundry, and housewifery. It was the first city I visited in a year devoted to the study of this very problem, and here seemed to be at once a highly promising situation. Very hopefully I asked the question as to what the girls did, who went out from schools of this type, and could scarcely believe my ears when the answer came, "Some stay at home, but most of them become typewriters." It happened that the little girls worked there during the school day and went to evening schools for commercial branches. They were wise enough to see that there was no place for them in the commercial world until they were at least sixteen, and wise enough also to see the ultimate advantage of a year spent at the Princes' Road School. A Roman Catholic school doing splendid work in the same city made a similar report and the Mother Superior said, "We do succeed in turning a few of the little girls into domestic service, but most of them go either into offices or factories. It is such a pity, for our housekeepers need them and they themselves would be so much better off."

Any form of domestic service for high school graduates is at present hopelessly out of the question, in fact one teacher has been sharply criticised by other teachers in the school, for encouraging a very gentle, fine young girl to go to a simple, small seashore bungalow to take the entire responsibility and do the work for a woman artist and her little boy. This girl is thoroughly interested in her cooking, has much executive ability and initiative, and wishes to get practical experience so that after a little more study she may become a professional caterer on a small scale—a field which several public spirited women of wealth have assured us is most promising in Philadelphia.

Some of our girls would be competent to fill a position as assistant to a dietitian in a hospital, but when graduates of the higher technical schools can be found who are glad to accept the subordinate

position, it is not strange that authorities have more confidence in them. Some could do exceedingly well under guidance in dietary work among the very poor, and some of them know their work well enough to teach cooking or sewing, but standards have been set and girls who have had two more years of training are none too good for our great public schools.

Yet the wish that they were older than eighteen was expressed in the case of two or three girls who applied for positions in the Philadelphia High School lunch rooms.

So much for our problems. It remains to make clear first what our high school does to give the girls a general education, and then, what we are doing to increase their efficiency along lines which ought to prove of distinct economic advantage to them later as they become self-supporting.

The girls who graduate from the home economics course have had four years of excellent work in English, two of work in a foreign language, two of mathematics, three of laboratory science, one of physiology, three of history and municipal civics, one half year of economics, and one half year of home management, with a brief study of the training of children in the home. They have the essentials of a good education, and their fathers and brothers are surprised to find them entering intelligently into discussions of current topics and municipal problems. They have had enough instruction in cooking to enable them to prepare all the staple articles of a varied dietary, and they can serve semi-formal luncheons to "paying guests" who recognize the pupils' economic efficiency. They have catered for receptions and teas, served luncheons for the faculty and scores of outside guests, and sold many articles of food which they have made in class. In fact during the first half of last year, forty girls in the home economics course earned enough from their class work to pay over forty-five per cent of the total cost of the department of five hundred and fifty pupils.

They can prepare suitable and appetizing food for the sick, plan a balanced menu for a given sum of money, and in small groups, without the supervision of any teacher, do the marketing, cooking, and serving of luncheons for "paying guests." They can test the foods which come into their homes, and buy their food materials with discrimination. They can design their own dresses, make a rather professional water color sketch of a dress, draft their own patterns, modify commercial patterns, and dress themselves attractively, modishly,

and with individuality at a minimum of expense. They can make their own hats, and do a score of useful and valuable things which can be done only by a girl trained in the courses of color and design. Each girl knows how to do her part in her own home and out of it to foster the health of the community, and she has had careful instruction, not only in personal hygiene, but in sex hygiene, and has been told in a frank, simple, and wholesome way the things which a girl ought to know in order to make and keep her a healthy woman.

The girls who intend to take up the dressmaking trade have been taught the fundamental principles of good dressmaking. They have designed their own dresses, drafted their own patterns, modified commercial patterns, handled materials of different texture, requiring different manipulation and different line, and kept strict account of the cost of the different items. They have made a cotton dress, a tailored shirtwaist, a woolen dress, a set of fine underwear, a Peter Thompson suit, a silk or messaline dress, and a graduating dress. Our girls, of course, made their own dresses for graduation, and very chic and dainty creations their friends thought they were—simple, suitable, inexpensive, but well made and exceedingly pretty. They have been required all along to depend largely on themselves; no work is taken home for mother to help out with, and we have discouraged any tendency to dawdle over work. One of our girls, who has one year more in school and had been honored with an invitation to be an usher at the Commencement exercises, came, after recitations were over, with material for a dress, saying that the other girls were going to “dress up,” but that she had no dress suitable; her mother thought she could not afford to have one made, but had given her three dollars for material if she would make it herself. In two days and a half with almost no help from the teacher, she made herself a charming white dress with a blue messaline girdle. Another girl—a complete failure in commercial subjects—came to us absolutely hopeless in bookkeeping and stenography, and in one-half year of four broken short periods a week acquired a degree of skill which enabled her, during a part of the summer vacation, to earn ten dollars, making simple dresses for her friends. No doubt a great many other girls could do that, but the fact remains that this particular girl has “touch,” and, for one reason or another, has friends who believe in her and she created her own market. Probably few girls, however, have her initiative and general capability.

The difficulties already indicated are not peculiar to the American high school. In Belgium, where probably technical education for girls is better organized than anywhere else, I was unable to obtain any official report as to the employment of the girls who finished the professional schools, and when the question was asked, the reply was, "Many teach in schools like this, many stay at home." The same answer was given in the *Paris Ecoles Professionnelles*. The facts gathered would lead one to believe that the most successful schools which give industrial training belong to one of two groups; namely, those which give a goodly share of general work and afford opportunities for technical work after graduation, as is done in many of the foreign schools, or those which take the girl of fourteen, or better, twelve, and give her a modicum of general work, and a short course of intensive technical work.

Judging from present information, it would seem that the only high school for girls, which really deserves the name vocational, in the sense of preparing girls for immediate self-maintenance, is the Washington Irving School of New York City. That is one of the schools of the great metropolis; there is no other New York in the country and it is very doubtful whether this school, with all its success, can be taken as a type or model which would be acceptable, and which would flourish in the majority of American towns and cities. Its work is highly suggestive, but it meets conditions which are by no means universal.

Jersey City, in her new high school, is working out an interesting and very suggestive plan—that of giving under the same roof a short industrial course of two years and the regular course of four years. The principal is hoping that this short course will attract girls to the school who would not otherwise come at all, and instead of fearing, as many do, that girls who could as well remain in school four years will be content with half that time, he expects, as he puts it, to "save" girls out of it for the full course. In Philadelphia, and very likely in many other cities, such a plan is not just now feasible. A short industrial course would probably greatly increase the members of the entering class and as it is, over a thousand girls each year have to be accommodated for the first term outside the main building.

The appeal of the untrained girl of fourteen who has to go to work at once, or can at best stay in school only until she is sixteen, is very strong. It is probably true, that she will not remain long in any industry, but yet she may, and whether she does or not, her lack of

efficiency may cost her her health, her character, or her very life. There is great human value as well as economic value in the work of the city trade schools for girls, such as are found in New York, Boston, Milwaukee and Worcester, and on the other side of the Atlantic at the Borough Polytechnic, Bloomsbury and other Trade Schools in London, the great *Lette Verein* in Berlin, and the Professional School for girls in Rome. The trade school for girls has its ardent supporters, and its keen critics as well, and there are some who believe that the most valuable contribution which is being made today to the solution of the whole problem is that made in Los Angeles and some other western cities, and in Fitchburg, Massachusetts, where we find what is virtually a six years' high school course, taking girls at twelve instead of fourteen years and at once beginning specialized work. This is distinctively the English and European plan, and has many advantages. It seems undemocratic in that it causes early differentiation into classes, but it is splendidly democratic in that it gives the girl an early start on the road to efficiency of the kind she needs. Industrial communities ought to give, whether in intermediate high schools, short industrial courses, or trade schools, some form of industrial training which will enable girls of sixteen to enter industry at a better wage than they receive at present. Granting this, we still have to face this question, "If a trade school with a modicum of general work in addition to the technical work can send a girl out to earn a fair wage at sixteen, why cannot a technical high school, with a four years' course, do a great deal more for the girl in preparing her for industrial vocations, and placing her at once?"

The most serious difficulty in average communities seems to be that of finding proper positions for the graduates. If our technical high schools were to devote themselves rather exclusively to the preparation of girls for the trades, the mediocre girl who could succeed in getting through would not be assured of more than a very low standard wage. For the girl of exceptional ability, and by that I mean artistic, creative, executive, and business ability, there will always be immediate opportunities and her school training will help her toward rapid advance. There are too few really good dressmakers, and there are too few good workers in the establishments, but the girl of eighteen is not capable of taking the place of the one, and the place of the other is not to her in any sense attractive. She will not go into service as cook, and the positions through which she can work up to the level of the trained worker who has had a longer period of instruction

in the preparation of food are difficult and thoroughly uncongenial in the majority of cases.

The critic may ask, "Must we admit then, that the technical high school is a failure?" By no means; but the contribution of a good Home Economics course in high schools throughout the country is rather to the solution of the general educational problem than of the specifically industrial problem. With so much of the inertia of tradition and the reactionary spirit arrayed against vocational education, some of us hesitate to put in a plea for anything which does not bear very directly, and equally obviously, upon the vocational purpose, for fear of being considered half-hearted, insincere, and trying to compromise with "the old school"; but the fact remains that given two candidates of equal skill, the one whose personality is the richer and whose outlook is broader is the one who generally wins out, simply because the industrial world as well as the professional world wants, in its positions of responsibility, those who have a reserve upon which they can draw in the unexpected emergency and who promise possibilities of growth as responsibilities increase. Perhaps, after all, we shall serve the cause of industrial education better if we hold pretty firmly to those things which we think are really good, and catch as much as we can of the best spirit of industry, its energy, its directness, and its definiteness.

Courses such as are given in the technical high schools are proving that they have certain real values. They have kept under the influence of the school girls who would otherwise have been in the factory, on the street, or vaguely drifting from one dance and card party to another; they have aroused to enthusiastic effort girls who have been apathetic or frivolous; and many a girl is finding herself in just this work. The girls are gaining a poise, a self-reliance, and a power of initiative which is recognized by teachers outside of the department, and marvelled at by their own mothers. It is making the girls, while economically dependent, more appreciative of the sacrifice which their education is involving, and is helping them to make positive contribution, right now, to the family welfare. It is showing girls the value of money and helping them to spend with good judgment. All this has a definite though indirect value to them economically, whatever they may do; and their technical work, moreover, is bound to help them a long way to industrial efficiency.

In our zeal for the poorer classes we should not overlook the fact that between the very rich and the struggling masses is a great com-

pany of skilled workmen, fairly well salaried people, and others in comfortable circumstances, whose daughters for one reason or another are not going to college, but who, for two or three years to come, will not need to make any considerable contribution to the family exchequer. Such parents are glad to have their daughters engaged in work which has such strong interest for them, and is of present as well as future practical value. They are glad to have their growing girls occupied in school work which does not require an exhausting amount of home study. They take pride in their growing efficiency in the home and they are willing to postpone, often it may be at some sacrifice, the income-bearing time in order that the girls may study two years more, or to encourage a girl, who is working on a low wage, to look upon her vocation as a kind of necessary apprenticeship.

If there were absolutely no preparation for industrial vocations in these technical high schools they would still have abundant reason for being. They do, however, contribute a great deal through their technical courses toward industrial efficiency, and the chief element of difficulty lies in the fact that the vocations for which they are preparing do not afford a sufficient number of desirable positions which a girl of eighteen is mature enough to fill.

Serious thought upon this question is a very recent thing, and it will take probably at least a decade of experimentation to find out the way in which the high school for girls can best give both a fair general education and an adequate preparation for self-maintenance. All of us who believe in vocational education need to have, not only faith in what we are trying to do, but a critical spirit to discern where we mistake or even fail. We must keep an open mind to see the good in what others are doing and we must be vigilant to the utmost to discover how the work we give may have real significance and value to the girl who must "pull her own weight" as soon as she leaves the public high school.

STANDARDS OF LIVING.¹

IRA S. WILE, M.S., M.D.

New York.

If imagination travels back into the middle ages when each noble in his castle ruled mightily and spent his time in praying and fighting while his wife diligently did sew and spin, embroider and manage the household, the day of chivalry would appear a time of joy. If the mind reverts to the single room hovels in the villages along the crooked streets over which projecting stories almost meet, and realizes the fight against famine and pestilence, the scene presents a cheerless picture. From the time the shutters opened in the morning until they were closed at night, life was constant warfare. The pause in the day's occupation was not the children's hour, but the ringing of the Angelus. The watchman with his ready light sounded the curfew, placed the chains upon the ends of the streets and rest came upon the multitude.

Were we to go back into the days of Greece or Rome or ancient Egypt, we should still find the divisions of the higher classes and the lower classes whose standards of living differed according to their relation to the laws and economic and social principles of their age. Thus we may state that standards of living vary with the age and generation of man. The standards of the stone age, the bronze age, and the iron age vary as much as their implements, their clothing, and their shelter.

From the historical standpoint, one perceives that standards of living may be divided into physical standards, social standards, and spiritual standards. Individual progress in well-being conditions social progress and makes it possible. Social standards react upon the development of civilization and are potentials for a higher standard of personal living. Social progress represents the progress of humanity and receives its impulse from above and works down through the mass to the multitude, leavening their lives with comfort, peace, and contentment. It

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is obvious that all standards of living must depend in part upon variations in climatic conditions as well as upon the nature and extent of general education together with the difficulties and magnitude of industrial problems. Social usage determined by a sense of morality has its marked effect upon the standards of any age and generation.

In considering standards of living we must recognize that there are natural variations depending upon nationality. The standards of Abyssinia, Holland, Italy, and England differ from those of the United States, with its cosmopolitan population, according to the national characteristics which have been developed through the ages by the reaction of the people against their environment.

The development of printing, from the crude block printing of the Chinese, to the press of Gutenberg, to the modern complex Hoe machine that is utilized for getting out our daily papers, indicates a marked factor in raising the standard of living. The progress, from the days of the tallow dip made in the home, to the use of kerosene, then gas, and now electricity, suggests a rise in the standard of living due to man's genius and accomplishment. The substitution of the motor car for the horse or the ox team, the change from the caravan to the locomotive indicate the wide step in advance that has been taken in standards of transportation during the past few generations.

In the consideration of standards of living, one must differentiate those which are existent as opposed to those which should exist. The standards that are held by the highest in intelligence and morality, those few great souls with vision, represent goals which should be reached by all. Unfortunately, in discussions upon this topic people usually concern themselves merely with minimum standards, those standards that seem essential to keep body and soul together and nothing more. Standards level upwards. The luxuries of yesterday are the necessities of today. The exhibition of comforts that money will purchase determines the social standards of those lacking in worldly goods.

It is but natural that aspiration, imitation, and emulation should serve as incentives to raise the lower standards to the higher levels. Thus we find that the garden patch and the family pig have given place to the piano and the phonograph. Horses are succumbing to automobiles and mortgages. The telephone and the telegraph, the railroads with their luxurious accommodations, the trolley car, the folding bed, the gas stove, the fireless cooker, have all woven their places into the intimate fabric of human life so as to raise the stand-

ards of all kinds of people. Home cookery has declined and the bakery is baking our bread. The laundry is relieving our washtubs. The factory and the shop are doing our spinning and making our clothing. The difficult adjustments made necessary by the change from an agricultural form of life to an industrial life have complicated our social and economic system and altered greatly the standards of living within the home as well as without the home.

In the general term "standards of living" we have many connotations. There are the standards we maintain for ourselves; there are the standards that we would exact from our neighbors. We have legislated against out-houses and pig sties. We forbid our neighbor to persist in those practices which he thinks may aid his own family life if we feel that they interfere with the standards of living of the group. We have city standards, state standards, and national standards, all depending upon a recognition that the standard of living of the group demands an alteration of personal standards and home standards. We have standards of taste in art, in music, and in literature. We have standards of weights and measures, arbitrary though they are and differing slightly among the nations of the world. We establish standards of living for jails, hospitals, and asylums. We declare standards of living for schools and convalescent homes. We even have a standard year, that in itself has some variations. Thus it is noteworthy that standards of living must be considered for a given time, a given place, and a given class of people. There is no absolute standard of living save as an ideal; and when the highest standards of today are realized, they will fall short of the standards that will then be used.

Contentment is possible with low standards. High standards may be achieved with simplicity and economy. The standards of living may be based upon social efficiency, but these standards are the result of a reaction to an everchanging environment and mental horizon. With boundless wealth and low intellectual and moral basis the standards of living may not rise to great efficiency. With great mentality and limited means the ideals of high standards may exist but their realization may become impracticable. With degrading moral fiber, despite intellectual acumen and exhaustless wealth, the social efficiency of a high standard of living may fail to be realized.

Standards of living naturally vary within the same grade of income. Such variations depend upon the size of family, but for our purposes we shall consider Carroll Wright's normal family of a father

and mother and three children, with none of the children over fourteen years of age. The increase of the size of the family with the same income may readily cause a decline of the physical standards and limit its mental and moral development. The occupation of the head of the family will affect the standard as may readily be understood from a consideration of what is demanded of the day laborer, the tradesman, the physician or the minister. The location of the home has its power in determining many phases of all the standards, in so far as it bears direct relation to rental, cost of food, and the standards of clothing. Knowledge and judgment determine the standard of living in so far as they render the possessors thereof more or less capable of choosing and maintaining a standard that is compatible with their means and position in life.

Even the esthetic standard for which there often seems to be no fundamental basis, manifests itself in curious changes of physical, mental, and moral standards. The thick lips, the blackened teeth, the rings in the nose and the ears, the bracelets and the anklets reflect distinct evidences of an underlying social standard. The general aspirations of the individual, whether socially inclined or otherwise, suggest various distributions of the same income so as to bring about a high or low standard of living. From the point of view of rural or urban localization there must certainly be established entirely different standards on the basis of the same income.

There are some basic factors in the standards of living, among which we may enumerate cleanliness, order, simplicity, and the satisfaction of physical necessities, together with time and opportunity for recreation, improvement, and soul satisfaction.

According to the U. S. Census of 1910 there were over forty-nine million rural dwellers and over forty-two million urban dwellers. The arrangement of this population is of value in considering this problem. Over six million children under five years of age live in the country and a little over four million dwell in the city. The urban communities have 53 per cent of the population in the active period of life, between fifteen and forty-five years, while the rural communities have only 49 per cent during these years. This disparity is due in part to immigration and the movement from the farm to the city during the most active period of life. These seemingly insignificant figures have much to do with the consideration of the different standards existing in the rural sections, free from congestion, as compared with those existing in cities where congestion is necessary.

In the words of Prof. Albion A. Small, "No man can live, bring up a family, and enjoy the ordinary human happiness at a wage less than one thousand dollars a year." That wages in themselves are not the only elements entering into a standard of living was recognized by the Committee on Standards of Living and Labor of the Thirty-ninth National Conference of Charities and Correction, which stated: "The welfare of society and the prosperity of the state require for each individual such food, clothing, housing conditions, and other necessities and comforts of life as will secure and maintain physical, mental, and moral health. These are essential elements in a normal standard of living, below which society cannot allow any of its members to live without injuring the public welfare. An increasing percentage of our population derives the means to maintain this normal standard through industry. Industry therefore must submit to such public regulation as will make it a means of life and health, not of death or inefficiency.

"This regulation has to do with hours, safety, over-strain, and other conditions of the day's labor; with premature employment, unemployment, incapacity, and other factors which shorten or impair the length of the working life; with wages as the basis which work affords for a normal standard of home life; with unwise taxation and other community conditions which in our industrial centers exploit wages; with insurance against those risks of trade—death, injury, occupational disease—which break in upon working years and wipe out earnings; and with protection against poverty in old age when productive labor is ended."

The standards of living and the cost of living are not identical though they are closely interrelated. The high cost of living depends principally upon the question of supply and demand of commodities. Other factors entering into the high cost of living are personal wages, drink, luxury and extravagance, together with such social factors as governmental extravagance, the cost of war, and the army and navy, not forgetting the burden of crime, pauperism, and insanity, and the wastage from unemployment and preventable accidents and diseases.

The standards of living represent the crystallization of social ideals as limited by knowledge, strength, opportunity, and worldly goods. The standards are being raised through education. The papers and magazines and colleges are talking to thousands of people, whereas a generation ago such educational factors as lyceum lecturers appealed only to the hundreds. There is some truth, however, in the proverb,

"The rich man's wealth is his strong city; the destruction of the poor is their poverty."

To give a definition of a standard of living we may quote Dr. Devine: "A standard of living, whatever physical comforts it includes at a given period of life, must be understood to imply the income which will take the individuals of the normal family safely through the vicissitudes of life without reliance upon charitable assistance, although not indeed, necessarily, without mutual interchange of many courtesies and favors from friends and neighbors." Incidentally this definition was made in 1904 when six hundred dollars per annum was regarded as sufficient to maintain a minimum standard of living in a city. I prefer to take the concise definition of Dr. Harrington, "A normal standard of living may be defined as that which permits each individual to live as an efficient, healthy human being—morally, mentally, and physically."

In Alaska the average native home has but one room, and the sanitary arrangements are primitive in the extreme. On the seacoast, garbage and rubbish are thrown into the sea, while in settlements located on rivers, they are thrown into the rivers. During the winter months all refuse is allowed to accumulate, and in the spring, if the village school-teacher can force the natives to bestir themselves, it is cleaned up and somehow disposed of. To quote Dr. Krulish, "It is in the crowded, unventilated homes, where all eat out of the same dish, drink from the same teapot spout, use the same towel, and expectorate on the floor, that the principal danger of contagion exists and that tuberculosis and trachoma are most frequently contracted." This gives an unpleasant picture of living standards but it indicates that more than an income is necessary to determine physical standards.

In 1672 Petty estimated the money value of victuals used by a normal family in Ireland at 3s 6d per week. It is obvious that we cannot gain any insight into the standards of that time by the mere consideration of the money expended for food. De Tocqueville, referring to America, stated: "Carefully to satisfy all, even the least wants of the body, and to provide the little conveniences of life is uppermost in every mind." Further, "The passion for physical comforts is essentially a passion of the middle classes. The love of well being is now become the predominant taste of the nation; the great current of man's passion runs in that channel and sweeps everything along in its course."

We appreciate the fact that life has become more complex and that

industrialism has complicated our present existence. It is needless to tell a group of workers in home economics that salaries increased about twenty per cent from 1897 to 1910, while the food, rent, clothing and fuel that could have been supplied for \$759 in 1897 would have cost \$1032 in 1910. This does not indicate just exactly the degree of consequent variation in the standard of living. It is obvious, however, that if the price of commodities necessary for physical well-being is increased disproportionately to the salary increase, a state of poverty will be brought about for those who never suffered from it before. This type of poverty brings a lowering in standards for which society is responsible. As Mr. Frank Tucker, of the New York Provident Loan Association, has written: "Society, which pays the bill for poverty, has the right to say whether poverty that is preventable shall continue to exist We shall be led to inquire the price that society pays when the work of women and children is necessary to supplement the wages of the father. We shall be led to inquire the price that society pays when a portion of it is housed below the standard, is fed below the standard, is clothed, is warmed, has its rest and pleasures, is protected against sickness and accident, below the standard; is ignorant through lack of education because its services are exploited for the selfish purposes of others, or because of the unenlightened attitude of some who conscientiously (perhaps) maintain that labor is a commodity to be paid for according to supply and demand, without regard to the essentials of a normal standard of living and the cost of those essentials."

The interrelation of food to general welfare is well voiced by Adam Smith in stating, "A plentiful subsistence increases the bodily strength of the laborer, and the comfortable hope of bettering his condition, and of ending his days, perhaps, in ease and plenty, animates him to exert that strength to the utmost." The general variety of food is greater in this country than in most others. The increase in knowledge of sanitation, the improvement in cold storage facilities, and the general importation of new and valuable foods have all served to increase the cost of living when food purchases are standardized wholly by the palate rather than by the pocketbook. Food esthetics and the increased use of sealed packages have not necessarily served to better dietetic standards proportionately to their cost. General investigations of family budgets have shown that the food supply varies greatly according to the rental and the financial stress of the family. The fall in expenditure for foods alters

the nature, though not always the caloric value, of the nourishment provided. The limitations in the quantities purchased owing to lack of ready available funds may probably be regarded as a reason for a ten per cent loss in food purchases even when a knowledge of economic dietetics is present. The families who spend the most for rent among the lower income groups expend the least for food. Meat cost per capita rises with the income while the expenditure for bread and cereals declines.

The Russians are large meat eaters and small consumers of vegetables and cereals, while this is reversed by the Italians. To maintain a standard of nourishment, Underhill five years ago estimated that twenty-two cents per day per man was required. Today twenty-five cents per day per capita may be regarded as a minimum in New York City. Naturally in Japan, where a mechanic may earn thirty-seven and a half cents a day, the consumption of food is at exceedingly small cost. The absolute value of a wage must be appreciated in terms of its relative purchasing power. The rice, the soy, the tea, the vegetables and the fish may be purchased at exceedingly low prices judged from our high wage standpoint but are relatively dear to the Japanese laborer earning from twenty to forty cents a day.

It is needless to present family budgets as the index of prosperity nor need one show the various type of each commodity which is purchased in large quantities in each income group. Suffice it to say that the American wages are high, but so are food products. The purchasing power of a dollar depends largely upon the one who is spending it. The dietary of the average American family is more varied than that of families of corresponding financial status in any other part of the globe. Another index of the dietetic standards is implied in the increased use of alcoholic beverages in the United States. The per capita consumption of wines, malt, liquors and spirits has risen from 6.43 gallons in 1860 to 23.01 gallons in 1908.

According to the Investigation of the Cost of Living in American Towns, wages in the United States are two and a half times those in England and Wales, while the rent in the United States is a little over twice that of England and Wales, and the food budget for a week for British American families would have an index of 143 in the United States as compared with a similar budget in England and Wales. In the language of the report the margin over the expenditure for food and rent is "curtailed by a scale of expenditures, to some extent neces-

sarily and to some extent voluntarily, adopted in accordance with a different and a higher standard of material comfort."

In the lower income groups there is insufficient money to purchase clothes at an advantage and the exploitation which results does not tend to make clothing a large factor in estimating the physical standard of living.

Furniture is frequently purchased on the installment plan with an added overcharge for the convenience. This produces a state of chronic indebtedness which to some may indicate a low moral standard. Practically, however, the installment business has made possible the acquisition of well furnished homes that otherwise would be impossible. The real index of the standard would be represented in the character of the furniture purchased, its gaudiness or simplicity, its comfort and durability. The essential furniture that is purchased consists of a stove, a table, a few chairs, cooking and table utensils, a bureau, beds, a clock, possibly a rug, generally a mirror, and, unfortunately, at times horrible ornaments and pictures.

The standard of thrift is often measured by the amount of insurance which is carried. Industrial insurance may not always be regarded as an index of thrift as much as the embodiment of a fear against burial in the Potter's Field. The desire for a decent and respectable burial appears to have a strong effect upon insurance and the bulk of industrial insurance goes to the undertakers.

The problem of standards for shelter does not depend wholly upon the income but upon the size of the family, the dietetic taste, the occupation, and the social desirability of the family as tenants. For example, negroes in the North pay disproportionately high rents for the same accommodations as their neighbors, simply because they are negroes. A large family may pay a disproportionately low rent because of the necessity of expending money for food. Rental has no lower limits and any shack or hovel may be tenanted. The cost of rent falls rapidly after the expenditure for food has been reduced to its minimum. Shelter standards in cities may in part be gaged by the presence of a private bathroom or a private toilet. In New York City, among those whose income is between four hundred and five hundred dollars, only thirty-two per cent have private toilets and only four per cent have a private bathroom. These standards again must include room congestion, and assuming a standard of one and one-half persons per room, or four rooms for six people, fully forty-four per cent of the families with an income under eleven hundred

dollars exceed this standard. The real standards of home conditions should be indicated in terms of light, air, cubic capacity and the number of rooms. There should be access to running water, a separate bath, and a separate toilet. Social welfare demands a sanitary home, reasonable fire protection, and privacy, all at a cost not to exceed twenty per cent of the family income.

While sixty-six per cent of the population of the United States live in rural communities and only thirty-four per cent live in large cities, the country life is not free from low sanitary standards. Sixty per cent of the wells of the farms in the United States and Canada are polluted with house and barnyard drainage. The disposal of human and animal waste is not regulated by high sanitary standards. Such low sanitary conditions include the lack of protection for manure heaps, exposure to flies, closed windows, common dippers, careless dish washing and tuberculous cattle. These represent unsanitary conditions which interfere with the healthful progress in the rural districts despite the fact that their general mortality rate is lower than that of the city. The principal causes of death that are more common in the country than in the city are typhoid fever, malaria, influenza, dysentery, apoplexy and paralysis. It is noteworthy that the main causes of death are from unsanitary conditions, due to a lack of high standard in public health matters.

A decrease in disease tends to increase total wages and a general decrease in illness would tend to lessen the baneful effects of the high cost of commodities. This is particularly important when we recognize that fully six hundred thousand people die annually in the United States from preventable causes, while fully two million suffer from unnecessary illness each year. The economic wastage may be estimated at three billions of dollars per year. Over forty-two per cent of the deaths each year might be postponed. It has been suggested that the standards of living may be partially indicated by the death rate. Assuming this for the moment, it is interesting to notice the average death rate per thousand population from 1906 to 1910: U. S. 15.1, Denmark 13.7, England and Wales 14.7, France 19.2, Hungary 25, Italy 21.5, Russia 30.9, Spain 24.3, Norway 13.8, New Zealand 9.7.

The effect of education upon standards of living is variable. If education be of any value there must be plenty of it. It is striking to realize that educational standards are still low. The average length of the rural school term in the United States is only one hundred and

thirty-eight days, while for the cities it is one hundred and eighty-four days. Some states in the Union keep their rural schools open for only four to six months. In this connection one may consider the extent of illiteracy as indicating, in part, the standard of intelligence in the United States. The average of illiteracy in 1910 for persons of ten years and over was 7.7 per cent. In the urban districts it was 5.1 per cent but in the rural districts it was 10.1 per cent. The distance of schools from the homes prevents the attendance of young children at rural schools, while the industrial activity, in the years over fifteen, lessens the attendance of children at school in the city. In his Utopia, More provided that each year twenty families should return to town after two years in the country. Everyone had to learn agriculture plus some special trade. There were six hours work each day and everyone was working. While this theoretic scheme is no longer practicable, it is important to arrange the adjustment of work in all our schools to the lives and needs of our children, whether in the city or in the country. Through this vast educational plant it will be possible to raise the standard of living as far as its mental aspects are concerned. General education represents the crux of this problem.

Certain tendencies appear to suggest that for many families the home is practically resolving itself into a place designed merely for eating and sleeping. The developmental possibilities of the old type home have apparently been temporarily put aside. Recreation itself appears to be becoming a lost art in many homes. Home occupations do not receive their due recognition as a means of educational play. There are no longer the commons and the bowling greens for free play, but the play instinct of our children in the cities is being dulled through transferring its field of activity to the hot, dirty, and dangerous streets. The entire movement for recreation indicates that the spontaneous play of boys and girls now needs stimulation and supervision in order to have the spirit of the club and the gang directed into healthful channels. There is greater organization of communal recreation in the form of libraries, dance halls, festivals, and pageants. On all sides commercialism has seized hold of recreative opportunities and life is besieged with the movies, the dance halls, the saloons, the theatres, the meeting halls, and the billiard parlors. All these types of recreation exert their specific degrading influences upon the mental and moral welfare of the community and are potent factors in affecting physical standards through their general cost. Adequate forms of

recreation, at any cost, may exhibit compensations in the form of an exhilarating joy that sustains, or a mental attitude that brightens and encourages a family to struggle against impending oppressive forces.

There is a general recognition of the benefits to be derived by giving special attention to the social welfare of workers and thus we find movements for industrial betterment extending throughout the urban and rural sections. Both in the country and in the city, we find an unusual variety of institutions seeking to better the general welfare of employees. One may find clubs, physical culture organizations, libraries, lecture systems, training schools, and musical organizations. Of greater value in raising standards are the institutions of profit-sharing and coöperative organizations. There is found the establishment of improved dwellings, the inauguration of lunch rooms and recreation rooms, the provisions of medical and nursing attendance, and provident banks and loans. Regardless of the fact that, in origin, these are economic devices to promote business efficiency, they serve to improve personal and family standards. They fail, however, when considered as substitutes for wage increases. Similarly we find in our educational institutions the development of medical inspection and school nursing together with dental clinics and school lunches. Municipalities are inaugurating campaigns for infant hygiene, pre-natal care, and visiting nurses, together with a more adequate supervision and control of midwifery and the careful investigation and control of food supplies.

The marital condition of the country bears a distinct relation to the general contentment and standards of efficiency. For persons over fifteen years of age, 55.8 per cent of the men, and 58.9 per cent of the women are married; $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent are widowers and 10.6 per cent are widows. In the rural districts $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the men and 26.6 per cent of the women are single, as compared with 40 per cent of the men and 32.8 per cent of the women in the city. The reasons for this marked difference are apparent in that women marry at an earlier age than men, particularly in the rural sections. The large number of widows in proportion to the widowers is due principally to the fact that the widowers remarry more quickly.

The moral standards of the community are largely dependent upon monogamous married life. The standards of morality are therefore affected by all the problems concerned in the state regulation of marriage and divorce which is at present assuming prominent positions in the public mind. Law and inclination must not clash too radically

when the basis of marriage is to be affection. State registration of marriage is an economic measure and in no way related to the broad general problems of public morality.

The existence of the social evil is a constant drain upon the resources of the country as well as a blight upon its physical, mental and moral progress. Morality by legislation is difficult to secure. Morality by education, understanding, and self-control will present the determining motive in the future. To this end education in sex hygiene is becoming imperative in the city and in rural sections. It should be embraced in a home economic movement.

The decrease in the number of children is in part due to the fact that children no longer form an industrial asset as in the days of hand agriculture. At the present time machinery has displaced many workers so that the work of the world no longer requires the hands of frail children. At the same time the exploitation of children continues because Mammon and his disciples find it cheaper to sap youthful vitality than to arrange their work upon the humane basis of employing only the more mature individuals over the age of sixteen. The decline in the birth rate throughout the world exists correspondingly in our own country and we are dependent upon our prolific immigrants for the maintenance of the rule of four children for race growth.

The standard of living for children is constantly being raised. Every child is entitled to a home, and institutionalism for children is rapidly disappearing in wise communities. The movement to bring together the homeless child and the childless home is tending to supply each with what it most requires for a proper fulfillment of its inherent powers. Large factors in the so-called decline of our morals, if such be admitted, are the lessening of the home influences, the removal of industries from the home, and the growth of the shop and the factory with their early apprenticeships, without counterbalancing educational forces.

The churches themselves have assumed a movement upward and are recognizing the relation of Christianity and the social crisis. Their efforts are no longer wasted in pitiful pittances and in individual doles. They are at last recognizing the possibilities of accomplishment in constructive efforts for social regeneration. In their treatment of their own ministers they are recognizing the importance of establishing a minimum wage and are seeking to stop the unwholesome practice of pauperizing the ministers of the gospel by making them dependent upon donations and free-will offerings that do not afford

them the opportunity to attain a position of maximum efficiency. The church itself is being spiritualized and its influence for moral service is being enhanced. The old attitude of the church is giving way to a plane of rational equality and coöperation between the church and the parishioners.

The adulteration of foods and clothing were reported in the days of Pliny and earlier in Babylon and Egypt. The weighting of silk and leather, the selling of cotton for wool, are but modern extensions of the days of strawless bricks, small loaves of bread and short weights. The making of licorice pellets of lamp black, carpenter's glue and glucose; or of serving lemon pie made of glycerine, glucose, oil of lemon, starch, coal tar dye, and benzoate of soda are only modern variations in the light of chemical developments.

The facts of combinations of capital and labor are but transmutations into organization of the difficulties of the patricians and plebeians, the Helots and the Spartan citizens, and an expansion of the movement of trade guilds. The harshness of modern competition has manifested itself in every standard of human life, and its solution is one of the most difficult problems of the future. High finance, speculation, and manipulation, together with gambling of all kinds, exercise an unfortunately potent influence upon the welfare of the community through their relations to the development of panics.

The main factors in standards of living may be divided into personal elements and social elements. Among the personal factors we may enumerate as foremost health, intelligence, self-control, and ambition. Among the social elements we may include education and training, wages and hours of work, regularity of employment, sanitation, recreation, and the prevention of accidents and disease. The importance of personal health is so obvious as a fundamental of maintaining high standards for one's self and one's dependents that it may be dismissed by its mere mention.

The value of knowledge and of the development of the facts, processes and ideals to be secured through education is known to all. In the working out of individual problems the importance of intelligent action is paramount. The lack of progress in maintaining high standards of physical education may be placed at the doors of an education that has not kept pace with the necessities of the times. Greater stress must be placed upon education for home making and the domestic arts and sciences in vocational training, and upon agriculture, not merely in colleges and high schools, but in that branch of the edu-

cational system which reaches the bulk of the children of this day and generation.

The development of character requires the creation of the power of self-control which shall determine for the individual an ability to conventionalize himself in the interests of the public welfare. The morality of our age must depend upon the power of inhibiting pernicious activities. Law serves to create moral force but its punitive powers do not develop morality. Self-control as a result of education is the foundation of a wholesome morality of the higher standard.

It must always be borne in mind that individual standards may be placed upon a low plane for variable periods of time under the goad of ambition and thrift. Many voluntarily assume inadequate physical standards, even tending toward moral degeneration, in order to save for the purpose of purchasing a home, providing for the future, or establishing themselves in business upon a better footing.

The social standards of living over which individuals have little influence, save in their capacity as citizens, involve the ever-present questions of street improvements and cleanliness, a pure food supply, free baths, parks, sewerage systems, tenement house laws, sanitary control of industry, the establishment of hospitals and dispensaries, medical inspection, visiting nurses, visiting housekeepers, vaccination, quarantine, fumigation and allied civic works. The principle of social or civic consciousness tends to leaven the mass with a consequent readjustment in the standards of living. The result evidences itself in better standards for the group, though at times with additional hardship for some constituent members of it. The increased cost of living is felt temporarily by the multitude but their standard of living is bettered. This phase of social development is preëminent in the numerous broad social problems which rise from time to time such as the questions of old age insurance, workingmen's insurance, employer's liability, and fire protection.

The importance of fire protection in relation to living standards has been given inadequate attention. The average fire loss in the United States from 1905 to 1910 amounted to \$218,000,000 per year. In addition to this there were 3000 deaths, not to mention the numerous temporary and permanent injuries. For the past ten years the fire loss has amounted to \$2.58 per capita. This loss, which is eight to ten times as great as the fire loss in any European country, is not entirely met by insurance. Insurance merely represents paying one man's loss with another person's money. The money now

being spent for fire insurance must be taken off from the sum that would be available for food, rent, clothing and similar necessities of life if fires could be prevented. A fire loss at the rate of \$3000 per hour certainly affects the standards of living particularly when the devastation involves homes. Fire insurance is a factor in the cost of production of most commodities.

The essential education and training which can be supplied only by community work, indicates the need of hygienic training, commercial education, industrial training, and vocational guidance in so far as may be necessary to develop into social citizens the children of this generation. Adult education, university extension, women's institutes, farmers' conferences, lecturers, and traveling exhibitions form vital elements in the campaign for education which is to inspire the adult population.

The standards of general well-being are powerfully influenced by an education which considers the practical problems of life. I have little sympathy with that portion of the community which regards women merely as the spenders. The time has come for recognizing women as the originators and conservers of the home. The education of our girls must take into consideration the needs of reconstructing homes or directing them along the lines of greater efficiency.

Poverty educates through the process of elimination. The poor find a certain level in purchasing because their funds permit them to buy naught else, but rational education tends to raise both the personal and civic standards of living. Through education public sentiment is created that tends to better housing facilities and recreational facilities. Intelligent action upon pending legislation, as for example minimum wage laws, can be secured only through raising the standard of social education. The politician recognizes the value of political education and campaigns in order to educate the voters. Our training systems must profit by this example and afford an opportunity to citizens, voters or non-voters, to learn their duties in reference to the general welfare. The deteriorating influences of child labor should be expounded as a gospel. The few families who actually need the paltry two or three dollars a week which the child under sixteen can earn in industry might well be pensioned through a scholarship plan, in order to safeguard potential citizens. As a matter of fact only in rare instances are children's earnings required to prevent actual family suffering.

Chapin in his study of 391 families in New York City found only

48 with an income above \$1100, while 25 were below \$600 per annum. I believe that I am conservative in stating that 45 per cent of the workers in this country receive only bare living wages or less. The actual number of hours which people may safely work, naturally depends upon the nature of their occupation. A careful consideration of the relation of fatigue to efficiency has come before the public, during the last few years, as never before. The trend of industry is to reach the level of an eight-hour day. The Biblical injunction, "Six days shalt thou labor" is slowly becoming crystallized into industrial laws.

The opportunity for self-betterment, rest, recreation, and advancement is slowly being given to the masses who have been submerged in the maelstrom of industrialism. The theoretic wage is not to be confused with actual earnings. According to the reports of trade unions, organized workers lose on the average 20 per cent of their possible incomes through unemployment. Twenty-five per cent of the unions reporting to the Wainwright Commission represented the actual earnings of their members as less than \$700 a year, while only 14 per cent had an average earning above \$1000. In the language of the Wainwright report, "The effect of unemployment upon the incomes of skilled and organized workmen, in years of business prosperity, is serious enough to force nearly one-quarter of those whose earning power, if fully employed, warrants a fair standard of living, into a class of men no longer able to maintain themselves and their family according to the normal demands of health, working efficiency, and social decency."

In New York State, considering the wages of farm labor, we find that the average wage paid to men employed by the year amounts to \$266.21 with board or \$374.81 without board. This is a possible explanation of the scarcity of farm labor, together with unsteady employment, long hours, the hardship and monotony of the occupation, the lack of promotion, and the lack of normal recreation. Practically three-fourths of the males in industrial sections of the United States earn less than \$600 per annum. Under such circumstances it is difficult to define the middle class. Mrs. Bruere, who regards \$1200 a year essential for social efficiency and the maintenance of a moderately high standard of living, in defining the limits of the middle class, states that she eliminates "Those households whose incomes are less than \$1000 a year because they are on an economic level where no amount of brain and muscle can lift them up to the point of social efficiency."

A living wage certainly is a primal requisite for establishing high social standards of living. Such wages are due the workers in all occupations. The wage must possess a purchasing value that enables the wage earner to secure a normal standard of physical living, to provide for education, to safeguard against illness, to secure care for the weak and the invalids, and at the same time permit the accumulation of a surplus for the unemployable years of life.

While the problems of unemployment involve such personal characteristics as laziness, physical disability, and mental weakness, the mainspring of this action is wound up in the economic machinery. According to the census in 1900, 25 per cent of the workers in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits in New York State were unemployed part of the year and $27\frac{1}{2}$ per cent from three to six months. The fluctuation in employment from seasonal variations in industry differs from month to month. It is noteworthy, however, that 25 per cent to 30 per cent of families applying for relief at the hands of charitable institutions do so because of lack of employment of the wage earner. This in itself is indicative of the relation of unemployment to living standards. Lee Squier, in treating of old age dependency, estimates that there are 1,250,000 former wage earners who have reached the age of sixty-five years in want, and are now supported by public and private charity at an annual cost of \$220,000,000. The general effects of unemployment upon living standards may be summarized as forcing wives to work, pushing children out of schools and into industry, without the adequate physical strength or the necessary vocational training. Many of these children are forced into blind occupations, with the result that they are always unskilled laborers. With continued unemployment comes demoralization and drink, undernourishment and physical deterioration, pauperism, vagrancy, desertion or non-support, discouragement, and possibly suicide. These reactions conduce to low standards and are distinctly anti-social.

The relation of public health legislation and sanitary ordinances is manifest in increasing the expectation of life. The most recent life table measuring the health conditions in a large city is that prepared in New York City based upon the mortality for 1909 to 1911 inclusive. Comparing results with a similar life table prepared in 1882 by the late Dr. John S. Billings, we find that thirty years ago, a child under five years could expect to live 41 years while a child at that age at the present time may look forward to a future life time of almost 52 years, an increase of almost eleven years. The persons of 25 to

30 years had an expectancy of life of 32.6 years as compared with the present expectation of 34.3 years. On the other hand persons between 40 and 45 years had an expectancy of 23.9 years as compared with only 23.4 at the present time. At all ages above 40 there is a constantly decreasing length of expectancy. The increased mortality above 40 is thought to be related to an increase in the consumption of liquors and nitrogenous foods. Possibly another factor is the saving of a number of weaklings through the period of maturity so that they more quickly succumb during the period of greater stress upon the heart and circulation.

The general increase in industrial accidents, with probably 20,000 preventable fatal accidents annually, is a large factor in increasing the burden of many families, as well as in lowering their established standards of living. The proper procedure to prevent this unfortunate effect depends not so much upon legislation for the purpose of establishing liability as upon legislation to prevent the fatal occurrences. The installation of safety devices and the education of employers and employees in methods of industrial hygiene and accident prevention represent fields for active educational propaganda.

The provision for public recreation in the form of parks, playgrounds, municipal dance halls, public theatres, and libraries, is necessary to raise the general standards of living, physical, mental and moral. Moving pictures may tend to offset the saloons. In New York City, their weekly earnings are fully \$70,000, gotten from the million people who patronize them. The low priced theatres, satisfying the dramatic instincts of 700,000, take out of their incomes \$315,000 each week, while the high priced theaters, reaping their rewards largely from families of higher income groups, have little effect in lowering standards even though \$190,000 is taken from the incomes of their 158,000 patrons.

In the rural districts, standards of living are affected by the increased value of land, with a diminished percentage return upon the products of the land. The farms that have been robbed of their fertility, the exodus to the cities, the installation of machines instead of hand power, all have had a marked effect upon rural standards. The rural community spirit has been at low ebb and today the rural schools, the magazines for rural readers, the country roads, the country church, the husking bees, rural sanitation and the rotation of crops are all in a great interrogatory muddle, the clearing of which will serve to enlighten the rural population, stimulate social ideals, and raise rural standards.

In this broad general résumé of the living standards of this country there is no note of pessimism. We have only given recognition to the great advances that have been made and, after listening to complaints regarding present conditions, have had our ear to the ground for the promises of the future. All the standards of living may be raised and are being raised. The strength of the lever that is lifting humanity slowly but surely upward depends upon education, on personal, individual training, and social enlightenment. By raising the standards of intelligence, by increasing interest in the problems of home economics, by revolting against barbaric survivals which complicate our living, by emerging from a period of individualism to one of social consciousness, we are leading a marching army onward towards higher things. Society is being educated. The great work of the future is in the hands of the teachers in our schools and colleges, in the homes and on the farms, in the shops and factories, in our reform institutions, in our churches, and in every field of human endeavor. A standard of living should move parallel to the standard of general education and social ideals, and in these lies the hope of the future. So in the words of the proverb, "Take fast hold of instruction; let her not go; keep her; for she is thy life."

HOME ECONOMICS IN SOCIAL WORK.¹

WINIFRED S. GIBBS.

Supervisor, Home Economy Department, New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

For many years the policy of so-called relief associations has been more and more educational. From the beginning, relief workers have realized that to feed people was not enough unless they were helped at the same time to feed themselves. With this end in mind the first "Organized Charity" made its plan. Help was given to the needy families with a general idea of their special needs in mind, but owing to pressure of work it was not easy to meet all the details of these needs. From these beginnings relief societies became more and more specialized in their work, and among the first special workers to be added were visiting nurses. The great service that these nurses could render was plain to everyone, but it was not until 1906 that the possibilities for home economics in the social field were fully realized.

¹ Presented at the Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Ithaca, 1913.

Dean Arnold of Simons College said to the writer several years ago that she was eager to have this idea brought home to her students. She said truly that most teachers of home economics now realized the value of their subject from a pedagogical standpoint, but that they did not yet comprehend the breadth of the work in which they might engage. It was with this idea in mind that the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, decided to send a special worker into the field, that is, among its own families for the purpose of giving instruction in the best use of home resources. It is, of course, vitally important to make this work bear proper relation to the general relief policy of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and it is therefore the aim of workers of the Department to coöperate as much as possible with the workers of the Relief Department.

The plan of the work is as follows: The teacher who is to work in the home makes a rapid survey of conditions herself, noting special needs and general needs and planning her campaign accordingly. It is usually first necessary to bring a housekeeper to the realization of the need for having a system. These women have more or less untrained minds and because of general discouragement, insufficient food, etc., have low physical and mental vitality. Because of this low vitality they are very likely to say, "What is the use of trying to make our few pennies buy anything but bread and tea?" It is, therefore, the first care of the teacher to show that these few pennies properly spent may do a great deal in conserving the health and general economic standing of the family.

After the woman has become interested in systematizing her household, she is then led, step by step, into making plans to bring about the desired results. Lessons are planned first in keeping accounts, these accounts being used as a basis for further lessons. The first account book of the housekeeper is usually a very crude affair, but comparison of its items with those that *might* be purchased for the same money is very illuminating to the woman. After the revision of the accounts, and after taking care that the woman understands all details of buying, the next introduction is in the matter of planning the meals. Here there is much to be done, as very few of the women understand the necessity for giving special thought to this matter. The children, from the very small babies up, are given exactly the same food as that of the elders. There is, of course, some slight excuse for this when one considers the crowded lives of these women, but after a little

instruction it is usually easy to convince them that the necessary changes are so simple as to be quite within their possibilities.

When the family dietary is sketched and outlined, the woman is questioned as to her knowledge of the preparation of food, and where this is deficient, cooking lessons are given, always using utensils at hand and basing all cooking lessons on the dietary that has already been planned to meet the family needs.

By way of illustration, the work done in three typical families will be cited, first, where results are satisfactory, second, where conditions are typically bad and are now in progress of improving, and third, in a typical Italian family.

The work done in the first family was under a Teachers College student who is on the writer's staff of teachers. These students are trained in methods at the College and then come into the field of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor to put these methods into practice. The family consisted of the man, woman, grandmother, girl aged 6, and boy aged 4; the income was \$15 a week. This family was self-supporting but had no idea of proper management. The budget after the student finished her work was as follows:

<i>Income</i>	<i>Expenditures</i>	
\$60.00	Rent.....	\$12.00
	Food.....	24.00
	Fuel and light.....	6.00
	Clothing.....	12.00
	Insurance.....	1.60
Total.....	Total.....	\$55.60

The family consisted of 3.5 units, using a working man as a unit, and after instruction the rate upon which the family was fed was lowered to 25 cents per unit per day. This meant that there had been a saving of \$1.50 a week, and that the food, instead of being bought in a haphazard way and consisting of various indigestible foods, was planned so as to meet all the needs of this nearly normal family.

The family in the second class presents one of the most discouraging problems. The budget at present is as follows:

<i>Income</i>	<i>Expenditures</i>	
\$72.00	Rent.....	\$14.00
	Food.....	18.00
	Fuel and light.....	2.00
	Clothing.....	7.00
	Carfare and lunches.....	7.20
	Insurance.....	1.60
Total.....	Total.....	\$49.80

The units here are 3.9, and the rate at which the woman was feeding her family was 18 cents per capita. This is, of course, too low, and a glance at the budget will show that a large proportion of the income is unaccounted for. The woman's food budget shows delicatessen food, seven cans of condensed milk a week, an entire lack of fruit and vegetables, and meat items that include the most unsuitable cuts, which were made indigestible by frying them in quantities of grease.

It is quite easy to see that there is much to be done. When this Department began work on the case, the first thing that was done was to cut off the milk supply which the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor was furnishing to the family. It may be said in passing that this is one of the ways in which the home economy work can do much to help relief work by getting a clear view of conditions and by cutting off all unnecessary relief, such as the above. The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor has already found that this work makes possible a decided saving of relief funds.

To return to the case in hand: The first lessons will be given in revision of the budget, substitution of bottled milk for condensed milk, etc. The instructor will then proceed to emphasize the need for saving money and will bring up all other items necessary to be considered in promoting a decent standard of living.

The following outline will show the work done in the Italian family. It consisted of a widow and five children. Antoinette, the oldest, was a suspected tuberculosis case. She was taken from work, and the family was put on an adequate relief basis. Lessons were planned to teach Antoinette, while she is at home, the use of American foods and the proper feeding of the family. The lessons include the following topics: 1, Eggs and custard, oatmeal, soup; 2, Beef tea, rice, pudding; 3, Prunes, rice and tomatoes, chuck steak, cornstarch pudding; 4, Special diet for the baby who is nursing at 13 months; 5, Diet for the family, baked bananas, graham drop cakes, salmon loaf; 6, Split peas and bacon; 7, Diet written out for the baby which is to be taken to the Milk Station weekly and watched during the summer; 8, Ice cream, cornstarch pudding and broiled meat cakes; and 9, Family budget. In connection with lesson 4, the mother was advised to wean the baby and it was put on regular diet for a child of its age. The family was now put on an \$8 a week pension, and the weekly budget was to be kept by Antoinette, under the supervision of the teacher.

The budget as it now stands is as follows:

Rent.....	\$8.00
Food.....	19.00
Fuel.....	1.00
Light.....	1.00
Clothing.....	6.00 to \$8.00
Total.....	\$35.00

The total number of units in the family is 3.6 and the daily average food expenditure 25 cents. Two bottles of milk are supplied per day by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. Meantime, the visiting nurse has found, on further examination by specialists, that Antoinette is probably not tuberculous and that she can soon resume her work.

Nothing has been said about a certain distinct class of cases, that is, those cases that are frankly said to be "below the poverty line", where relief is necessary and where instruction must be given in the proper use of relief. Where the family is depending on the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, fully or in part for food, it is the aim of the Society as far as possible to have this relief planned to meet the actual needs of the family. The woman is told that she will receive nothing unless she is willing to coöperate by using the food that is sent, and by learning how to prepare it properly. It is quite easy to gain this coöperation as the woman's interest always responds to tactful advances.

It is believed that the work which has been described has a future and that the coming years will see its workers increasing in numbers on the staffs of large and small organizations for systematic distribution of relief.

The development of this work includes the following plan: All home teaching will be grouped under one head. When the Home Economy Department begins work on a case, the very practical teaching of the staff of Visiting Housewives will be the first thing introduced. After these women have brought about order in the home by means of demonstration, the Diet Teacher, Sewing Teacher, and Budget Teacher will next be called in. The Sewing Teacher will be held responsible for basing her lessons on the actual clothing need of the family, and the lessons will be planned by the Supervisor so that the expenditure for clothing will bear a proper relation to the income and also to other items in the budget. In this way it is hoped that the condition of the family will be bettered, both hygienically and economically.

TWO YEARS AS A DOMESTIC EDUCATOR IN BUFFALO, NEW YORK.¹

MRS. ANNIE L. HANSEN.

North American Civic League for Immigrants.

The Buffalo Committee of the North American Civic League for Immigrants opened an office and started its general work for the education, protection and assimilation of the immigrant, in 1911. At a meeting held early in the year it was decided to take steps to deal more personally with immigrant women. The committee rightly realized that if we are to have good citizens we *must* have good homes; right living induces right thinking and right doing. So the staff of Domestic Educators started to work, going into the homes of the immigrants, at first in a social way, and gradually, as suspicions and distrust were laid to rest and a friendly feeling was established, starting a regular routine of instruction. All the newly arrived immigrants are reported to us day by day from the government lists at Ellis Island.

Before approaching the homes, we called upon all the agencies working in the immigrant districts and established a system whereby we all coöperate. Through these agencies, the Educators have gained their introduction to many of the homes. Especially are we fortunate in having the support of the parish priests, who in some instances have given the use of their school rooms and even of the rectory to the Educator. One Hungarian priest announced in his church that any woman needing a friend to advise her upon any subject should call upon the Domestic Educator.

The lack of fresh air is the first thing to be noticed on entering the homes, and so ventilation has to be taught, and proves one of the hardest subjects; but when once thoroughly tested is usually adhered to. The Educators are often called upon in this connection to help re-arrange furniture so as to place the beds in the tiny rooms as far as possible out of the draught from an open window. In many cases we have been able to persuade a family to put a bed lounge into an almost unused front room and so avoid overcrowding in bed-

¹Presented at the Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Ithaca, 1913.

rooms. One Ruthenian woman accepted lessons in ventilation in fear and trembling, and chiefly, because Father Semtrotowich advised her to; but after finding that her children improved in health with proper ventilation, and her husband became strong and well after an attack of pneumonia, she became a missionary of ventilation, and is a tremendous power for a good health standard in the Ruthenian community.

The great majority of immigrants come to us from country districts and have been accustomed to peasant labor and mode of living; naturally modern methods of sanitation are as foreign to them as is our language. Unless we wish to see the immigrant colony develop into a germ breeder for the whole community, we must teach these people simple rules of sanitation. In home after home, it has been found that the sink was used for garbage and toilet purposes as well as for what it was originally intended. One immigrant woman removed the strainer which covers the drain pipe of her sink because she found the potato peelings would not go down. In the kitchens, garbage pails and toilet articles are left uncovered and unemptied for days at a time, especially in winter. The personal help which is necessary to drive home to the women the lessons of sanitation is not easy or pleasant to give, but it is absolutely essential that the Educator give a practical demonstration. We may have to threaten to appeal to the law in the shape of the Board of Health, but this is unusual, for generally the home will be kept sanitary if the family is impressed with the economic side of it.

With ventilation introduced and a sanitary standard formed, the Educator may turn her attention to the general domestic hygiene of the family. So numberless are the lessons in household work that it is impossible to go into them in a short paper. Sweeping, dusting, dishwashing, washing, and ironing are some of the things demonstrated. We try to induce each woman to follow a system in doing her household work, which we plan for her; also to complete her daily work before going to the front fence or into the alley or street to gossip. One of the hardest things to overcome in teaching hygiene is shiftlessness and lack of thoroughness. It is easy to get a woman to see the need for cleaning the stove and floor, but not at all easy to get her to clean out cupboards and corners. The Educator has to constantly demand thoroughness in all things. Some women have a feeling that cleanliness is a condition only for the rich and that if one is poor it follows as a natural course that one is dirty. One Italian man

said, "Some people are born clean, some dirty, and my wife was born dirty. She's happy, so why bother her?" We did bother her, nevertheless, and after months of patient work and much personal service, this woman was gradually brought to where her home, her children, and she herself were clean, and for twelve months she has kept on without backsliding. The first work done in that home was the cleaning of two windows, so that the family might see outside better. The woman's coöperation dated from that morning. Personal cleanliness is harder to teach than anything else, because the immigrant standard in this matter is so low. In order not to cause offense, the Educator has to impress upon the women the fact that the American climate demands more attention to details of the toilet than the old country. The first lesson is generally given in the form of a bath for the baby or for all the young members of the family. A bath for a baby has softened many a mother's heart and gained her confidence. We have found it necessary also to teach sex hygiene to the older girls, or to teach the mother and then induce her to teach her girl. One never knows how far-reaching the simple lessons in hygiene may be. After several calls when we talked about the weather, the need of the street being paved, etc., one woman allowed me to wash and curl the hair of her two little girls. While this was in progress she became confidential and told me how her husband frequented the saloon, etc.

Most of the immigrants are willing to take advice about food, because a chance to learn how to prepare American dishes appeals to them. It is, however, more difficult to get them to correct errors in the diet to which they are accustomed than to introduce new food-stuffs. We have had women tell us that no one in the family would eat cereals or drink cocoa. When the same things were properly prepared every member of the family enjoyed them. Perhaps the chief things to teach the immigrant in regard to food are the benefits to be derived from a mixed diet, and the danger of stimulants, especially for children. When teaching a woman what kinds of food to purchase and demonstrating how to prepare them, the Educator also teaches how to keep the food in a cleanly manner. Dietetics seems to be the easiest of all subjects to teach to immigrants. Many a woman, who could not be persuaded to keep clean or to ventilate her home, has learned how to feed her family. This may be because the immigrant expects new food in a new country, and because it is easier for the Educator to demonstrate in this subject, with no knowledge of the language which the woman speaks.

The most appealing work of all is the child welfare work. Immigrant children are very fascinating and a mother is always pleased by attention paid her children. The argument that the children will wish to be like American children and that the mother ought to care for them like American children usually prevails. It is interesting to see the new immigrant girl gradually throw off, one by one, the heavy, strange old country garments and try to copy the American girl, and at this period many good lessons in baby welfare work and child hygiene can be given the mother. The Educator has found it necessary to teach simple home nursing to the immigrant mothers. Lessons in baths, packs, poultices, the cleansing of cuts and sores and the care of simple burns and scalds have been given. Many little emergency boxes have been introduced into homes in the immigrant districts, when the mothers have been persuaded that it is best to be prepared for accident and not to have to send to the drug store after it happens. Upon our advice and with a knowledge of how to use them, the women keep in their boxes hydrogen peroxide, a simple ointment, castor oil, sweet oil, boracic acid, bandages made of old linen, etc.

Advice to prospective mothers takes a good deal of time. If the woman will have a doctor, then the case is turned over to the district nurse, but if she insists upon a midwife, as 90 per cent of the immigrants do, then prenatal and postnatal instruction is given by the Educator.

In this connection our advice is often asked about the clothes needed for the expected baby, and so instruction in buying, cutting out, and sewing little garments is given. In some families sewing has been the only instruction given and many women have come to the office and asked to be shown how to remodel and cut out garments. Darning and mending have had to be taught and women induced to mend clothes immediately after ironing and before putting away, instead of leaving it until the clothes are needed for wearing. When I went into this work I expected to teach many things but never millinery; yet that and many other unexpected things had to be done.

We have established in the center of the Polish community where there are 88,000 Poles, a Domestic Educator's headquarters. There we have had two classes for girls every afternoon during the year—one in sewing with a lesson in hygiene and a story at the end, and one in food principles and cooking. We take only those girls who, on account of religious restrictions, are not allowed to go to public schools. The Polish schools teach no sewing or domestic science. Then for

women we have had a class in cooking one morning a week, and one in dressmaking, the latter being taught by one of Buffalo's best dress-makers who has given up one morning each week for this purpose. We have found that the lessons learned at the Center have been carried home and put into practice there. On one occasion, one of the Charity Organization workers said she knew we had taught the women at the Wednesday class how to prepare rice and canned salmon, because on the following Friday she had found it in so many homes.

We of the North American Civic League for Immigrants know that instruction of the kind which has been described is needed in almost every immigrant home, and we believe it should be done on a large scale, under state or civic control. We believe that every immigrant woman should receive the Domestic Educator as naturally as she now receives medical examination at Ellis Island or sends her children to school. America has hundreds of thousands of immigrants living in communities apart, living lives which are from a moral, sanitary, hygienic and economic standpoint as foreign to American standards as they were in the peasant communities from which they came. We have a tremendous problem to deal with, and for our own protection, if for no other reason, it behooves us to deal with it quickly and thoroughly.

HOME ECONOMICS WORK IN THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS.

HELEN LOUISE JOHNSON.

Chairman Household Economics Department.

To most of the readers of the JOURNAL the work done in home economics by the General Federation of Women's Clubs is well known, but in order to realize the very rapid development of this movement in this special organization a few mile stones should be noted.

Among the congresses held in Chicago during the Columbian Exposition in 1893 there was one which resulted in the formation of the National Household Economics Association. Its aims are especially interesting because, although furnishing a very good foundation for future work, they show the limited scope of the home economics field at that time. As declared in the constitution, they were:

1. To awaken the public mind to the importance of establishing bureaus of information where there can be an exchange of wants and needs between employer and employed in every department of home and social life.

2. To promote among members of the Association a more scientific knowledge of the economic value of various foods and fuels, a more intelligent understanding of correct plumbing and drainage in our homes, as well as need for pure water and good light in a sanitarily built house.

3. To secure skilled labor in every department of our homes and to organize schools of household science and service.

For ten years this National Household Economics Association held annual meetings in large cities forming state organizations and through these the clubs worked. Its last president was Mrs. Linda Hull Larned of Syracuse, who had felt for some time that the best work would be accomplished by merging the Association and the clubs. At its annual meeting in Toledo in 1903, the National Household Economics Association passed its work on to the General Federation of Women's Clubs and the first report of a home economics committee was made at the biennial in St. Louis in 1904. At that meeting one session was devoted to the subject under the leadership of its chairman, Mrs. Arthur C. Neville of Wisconsin, assisted by Mrs. Mary Hinman Abel, Mrs. Adelaide Hoodless and Mrs. Nellie Kedzie Jones. It was at this time that a special appeal was made to the Federated Clubs to assist in introducing the teaching of domestic science in every school in the land where girls were pupils. This is still being asked and needs to be asked, in spite of the enormous spread of the teaching of these subjects within the past ten years.

This brief résumé has been given as an introduction to the program of work outlined for the home economics department in this tenth year of its existence as a distinct department of the clubs. When the biennial occurs in June, 1914, in Chicago, it will be but a little over twenty years since that first Household Economics Association was formed in that same city, and just ten years since home economics became an accepted part of the club activities. At this writing there are forty-five states which have actively working, progressive home economics committees, or departments. The states of Alabama and Nevada alone do no work of this character under separate departments, although they have educational and public health departments where some home economics subjects are considered.

The present home economics committee of the General Federation consists of eighteen members, including chairman and vice-chairman, twelve of whom are trained home economics teachers actively engaged in home economics work in different parts of the United States. The state chairmen in many cases are lecturers, supervisors, and teachers of this subject; but it is fair to say that some of the most

valuable work has been done by those who have not had normal training or teaching experience along these lines. It is very interesting to analyze the committees of the General Federation, for they represent its working force. It is often said in criticism of clubs that only idle women belong to them. Of this committee, thirteen are busy working women with their hands quite full without this added labor to which much time must be given to accomplish results; and the proportion is about the same on the other committees. Until one works with the General Federation it is impossible to realize the amount of work done by this organization and what it means in our home lives.

The facts in relation to the state chairmen have been given, not because splendid work is not being done in states whose club leaders do not represent those trained in its principles, but to emphasize the change of view point in ten years. There is still frequent need to say that home economics is *not* merely cooking and sewing; there is occasion to convert some doubting ones who cannot believe it has content worthy of recognition in many schools. That the meaning of home economics—its scope and content—has won recognition in the clubs is shown by the first recommendations made by the home economics committee when it came into office. They were as follows:

That every opportunity be used and a united effort made to more definitely establish the meaning and scope of home economics in order to create a common understanding that it is not limited to the activities of the household but comprehends those economic and social studies which place its higher forms on a cultural study basis.

The uniform adoption by the clubs of the name home economics, that being the name decided upon by the joint committee of the National Economics Association and American Home Economics Association as the one best fitted to designate the whole group of several subjects included under this generic title. This committee was composed of heads of college departments and experiment stations with the leaders of the home economics movement.

An intelligent coöperation with those endeavoring to establish or carry on work in social centers, whether in urban, suburban or rural communities. It is our belief that this should be done with the assistance of the Grange or Farmers' Institutes in those places where a separate plan would mean duplication of effort.

A reaching out along every line of endeavor to give intelligent assistance to the women and homes of the rural districts, with a desire to inspire the formation of rural clubs and those composed of young women, in all parts of the country, who may most easily be approached and interested through the subject of home economics.

The discouragement of those lectures, associations and exhibits which are rather commercial than educational.

The establishment of such ideals in food, clothing, and shelter as will serve to

free both the home and the individual from the costly demands of those fads and fashions which are not expressions of ourselves or our needs, but seem to indicate an unthinking or foolish tendency to copy others.

Coöperation with those working for college entrance credits in home economics in order that we may strengthen and deepen the high school work and introduce the proper and needed forms of home economics work into the grammar grades of every school and every state in the country.

In September it was decided that in coöperation with the public health department an educational campaign for the securing of a uniform food law should be entered upon, and a more active movement made for the establishment of entrance credits in home economics. Already the request for the uniform adoption of the name "home economics" in place of the many different titles given to the work had met with results. Almost invariably, where this has been requested with an explanation of the reason, the state federations have been glad to change the name of their state department if necessary. Then it is only a matter of time until the clubs composing the federation follow suit.

The following recommendations have now been made for the work for this year, with a hope to show some results at the June biennial.

To adopt the name "Home Economics" for the state departments working along these lines, as well as in the clubs.

To educate public opinion and arouse interest in the need of a uniform food law.

To urge the granting of entrance credits in home economics by those colleges not already giving them.

To endeavor to have cooking and sewing given in all elementary schools and made compulsory in the grades.

The last two recommendations are of the greatest moment to the American Home Economics Association. There is no question but that entrance credits in home economics are needed for the securing of the teaching of these subjects in the lower grades. But the difficulty lies in exactly the place where difficulty has been experienced in the workings of the present pure food law—in lack of uniformity. If there were a prescribed high school course in home economics as definite as that in high school mathematics or English, it would be comparatively easy to secure credits for work of the right sort. But there is not a uniform prescribed high school course. There is much done in many places in the name of home economics which does not deserve credit, and which the college is right in not recognizing. Nevertheless we cannot have cooking and sewing made compulsory in the elementary school in all places until high school work is given established value in entrance credits to colleges. It is a difficult

situation in our Eastern States, but needs agitation if for no other purpose than to give opportunity to show the scope, meaning and actual content of proper home economics teaching. We need the sympathetic coöperation of school superintendents and principals, the support of state superintendents and commissioners of education. Most of all we need to get together and decide what should or should not be taught in these different schools as definitely as we prescribe chemistry or many other things. This committee is working in coöperation with the Entrance Credit Committee of the National Economics Association in endeavoring to secure this needed thing.

The following account of the work of the Household Department of Wisconsin Federation of Women's Clubs, gives an idea of the character of the club work:

Believing that the study of the rights of the child is one of the most important problems of the day, the members of the Household Economics Committee have suggested this as one of the subjects for study and discussion during the coming year. For the purpose of rendering all possible assistance to the clubs, the members of the committee offer the following suggestive outline, with a number of references under each topic which may be helpful in furnishing material for club papers.

For those who may be especially interested in the new administrative problems of the home which are presenting themselves to the women of today, we submit an outline with bibliography.

For those who are interested in the more specialized or technical subjects, we suggest certain topics which are of general interest. We also add a bibliography.

The members of the committee earnestly urge every club to devote one or more meetings to a study and discussion of one or more of these subjects. We would urge that a few of the leading books which deal with home economics subjects be placed in the city libraries. Also, that the university and other lecturers in household economics be secured whenever possible to lecture along their special lines of work. We would suggest also, that the clubs make free use of all the various government bulletins. Lists of the free publications and a price list of those documents for which a nominal charge is made, may be obtained by writing to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.

The Wisconsin University Extension Department is planning to give during the coming year correspondence courses in home economics subjects, especially those dealing with the food and clothing problems. We feel that this will be very valuable for the women of the state. Further information regarding these courses may be obtained by writing to the Extension Department of the University.

The committee will be very glad to furnish upon request more detailed outlines and further information regarding bibliographies and to render every possible assistance to the clubs of the state.

The committee consists of: Miss Pearl MacDonald, Chairman, Milwaukee County School of Agriculture; Miss Abby L. Marlatt, College of Agriculture, Madison; Mrs. Frances Boughton, Menomonie; Mrs. Henry Sullivan, Milwaukee; Mrs. Dave Jones, Sparta.

THE TRAINING OF THE SCHOOL DIETITIAN.¹

LILLIAN A. KEMP.

Drexel Institute.

The training of the school dietitian is a subject which makes a strong appeal to all who are interested in the school feeding movement, as so much depends upon the person bearing this title and the character of her work.

Ten years ago the school dietitian was practically unknown; today there is a constant and ever increasing demand for the capable, well trained woman who can efficiently direct the system of food administration in the school dining hall. This position requires a woman especially qualified and well trained, one with definite ideas concerning her field and with ability to execute them. It is an ideal profession for a woman, demanding personality and enthusiasm, which are as essential here as in the home.

A woman of mature years and general experience is undoubtedly the best person for a position of this character. The course which Drexel Institute has offered for some time has brought together in each succeeding year, women from twenty-one to forty-five years of age—teachers, bookkeepers, secretaries, nurses, housekeepers, and others who wished a change in occupation. This group has also included many who, for the first time, faced the necessity of self-maintenance. While it is difficult, in view of other qualifications, to fix an age limit, it seems advisable that the minimum be twenty-five and the maximum forty-five years. Exception should be made, however, in favor of candidates of marked executive ability and acceptable personality.

We are all aware of the tendency among our younger graduates to use the position of school dietitian as a stepping stone to something easier or, as they think, more attractive. These weaken the system, reflect upon the school from which they have been graduated, and limit the possibilities of efficient work. For this reason it devolves

¹Presented at the Sixth Annual Meeting of the American Home Economics Association, Ithaca, 1913.

upon those directly responsible for training school dietitians to create an interest in all phases of the work and to impress them with the seriousness of the undertaking. The work is worth the best that is in one and should be entered upon as a profession. The many responsibilities of such a position are easily realized, and its educational possibilities are scarcely limited.

Assuming that the prospective dietitian possesses the necessary qualifications, viz., executive ability, perseverance, and enthusiasm, let us consider the most important factors in her period of training. This brings us to a point where we should decide which is more advantageous, the training offered by a normal course, which covers a period of from two to four years, or by the housekeepers' course, covering in most schools not more than one year when the students specialize for the field of administration. In Philadelphia some of the school lunch room positions are occupied by graduates of the housekeepers' course, others by women well qualified to teach. The former have the advantage of wider practical experience, the latter of a better foundation of science.

Since the majority of the graduates of the housekeepers' course at Drexel Institute become school dietitians, I shall give a brief outline of their training. During the first semester the students concentrate on lecture and laboratory work, and are given opportunities for observation at Drexel and in other lunch rooms of the city. As soon as they are fully acquainted with departmental routine they are assigned special duties, such as planning menus, serving during lunch hour, and the care of institutional kitchen and store rooms. During the second semester it is a desirable privilege to be sent as student housekeeper to high school lunch rooms one day each week where practice can be had under expert supervision.

The theoretical training of the school dietitian should consist of lectures on food production and manufacture, household sanitation, bacteriology, household chemistry, physiology, dietetics, institutional management, business customs and accounts, as well as minor subjects related to the work. The practical course should include food preparation in both small and large quantities, daily and weekly marketing, scientific laundry work, and the opportunity to manage the dining room in connection with her own training school.

Skill in the preparation of food materials is of primary importance. This is gained only by repetition of processes until perfect confidence insures excellent results. This enables the student to develop meth-

ods best suited to large quantity work and thereby make herself more capable of directing others. She should have the opportunity of preparing a great variety of foods, at least everything included in the daily school lunch menu, and when the results are unsatisfactory she should repeat the process until the finished product meets all requirements. The advantage of repetition under these circumstances is three-fold—the student works with more ease and rapidity, has more self-confidence and produces a better article. The school dietitian may not be required to either market or purchase for her department but it is well to give thorough training along these lines. She must be capable of judging how it is done even if she does not have to do it. She should first of all be instructed in the general principles of buying and the handling of institution supplies; she should visit the wholesale and retail markets of the city or town, and later actually have the opportunity of buying for lunch room and food laboratories for at least one month. Here she can put her business training into practice by keeping a cash account and filing bills and receipts.

Concerning institutional management so much has been said and so little done that I approach this feature of my subject with some hesitancy. Our accumulated experience is still insufficient to furnish the needed confidence. Theoretical instruction without sufficient practice is of little value. The latter can be provided in part by using the lunch room of the school where she is trained as a laboratory. In this way the student becomes acquainted with the problems of institutional administration and solves them as they occur. Undoubtedly we are under obligation to furnish this practice, otherwise we are doing an injustice to the student, to the public, and to ourselves. Adding three months to the usual period of training may not seem desirable, particularly to the mature candidate, but wisely conducted, the advantages of such a course are many. If, therefore, the graduate could be placed as assistant to the manager of a large dining hall, where under direction she could systematically deal with every feature of the position, she would have the best possible preparation for independent work. Her compensation, other than a small salary or possibly only maintenance, would be the justifiable courage and confidence she would acquire to undertake the solution in her own position of the problems which are certain to confront her.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON LAUNDRY MANAGEMENT OF THE INSTITUTION ECONOMICS SECTION.

During the past year the laundry committee was increased in numbers and efficiency by the addition of Miss Juniata Sheppard of Minnesota and Mr. Edgar A. Fisher of Indiana.

Among the many possible lines of work two were chosen and these have been carried on to a limited extent. The committee was besieged for information as to the possibilities and cost of the community laundry under rural conditions. They found themselves unable to answer these questions and therefore set to work to find out. Investigations were set on foot and certain results are available.

"The women have nursed wash-tub backaches for so many years since flail-threshing, scythe mowing and cradle-harvesting spine-pains for men passed into the past that the two ails have entirely lost step." No one will deny the necessity of lessening the labor of the farmers' wives, wherever it is possible to do so without lessening the efficiency of the home. The water supply on many farms is not what it should be for ease and convenience in laundering, and the clothes are generally very dirty.

The question of establishing the laundry in connection with the coöperative creamery was gone into in detail. In the creamery there is an abundance of hot water and steam for power machines and for sterilization. The water and steam should be piped to a separate section or detached building to ensure sanitary conditions. Then it is surely practicable to use this surplus power when the family washing needs to be done and the housewife needs leisure.

As Minnesota has led the United States in this experiment her experience is most instructive. The first coöperative rural laundry in the United States was established in Fillmore County, at Chatfield, Minn. It began work December 2, 1912.¹

A short summary of this report is enlightening: As is generally known "when women get interested in a thing and unitedly ask for

¹ For complete account see *The Farmer*, St. Paul, January 18, 1913, also *The Country Gentleman*, Philadelphia, June 14, 1913.

it, it comes." The final pressure brought to bear on the decision for or against this coöperative laundry was a farmers' picnic. We all know the custom of giving the men "a square meal" before presenting some request. This time the men turned the tables and invited the women to vote with equal power with the men on the question "Laundry or no Laundry." At Chatfield there was already a "very profitable" creamery, paying "substantial dividends to its stockholders at the end of each year." For four or five years these dividends were retained as a sinking fund for emergencies. The report says: "The farmers never missed their money and the sum gradually assumed a respectable growth in the bank." With this money the company financed the coöperative laundry to the amount of \$5000. A separate building was erected and rented to a separate company, and a 10 h.p. gasoline engine was installed at a cost of \$2000. A complete laundry equipment was put in for \$3000. To obtain this, shares were taken by town and farm purchasers, more than half, however, being farmers.

Washing and ironing are done every day. Clothes brought on Monday can be returned on Wednesday. General family washing or flat work is charged at 5 cents a pound, including ironing by mangle. For ladies' wear, which requires hand ironing, an extra charge of from 2 to 6 cents per piece is made. Starched pieces come under separate charges—shirts, 8 to 10 cents; cuffs and collars, 2½ cents each. It is expected that the charge for the family wash may be reduced to 3 cents per pound, so that the total charge to the average family shall not exceed \$2 per month.

The farmers pay each month by having the bill for their laundry deducted from their creamery check. At regular periods a settlement is made, 6 per cent on the investment is deducted from the profits, and the remainder is rebated to the patrons in proportion to the amount of their washing bills, whether they are stockholders or not. The town patrons have collection and delivery charges with a consequent reduction in rebate.

During the first month, December, 1912, 50 farmers submitted an aggregate of 130 washings at a total cost of \$127.27. The cost per washing was about 98 cents. A rebate of 10 per cent was granted making the average cost per washing about 91 cents. The second month the farm customers jumped to 71, and their washings to 156. In the short month of February there were 75 farm homes represented with 147 washings. The town people sent many more. "The labor

force numbers six person exclusive of the manager." An experienced foreman from a city laundry is paid \$25 per week; his wife, an expert laundress, gets \$10 per week, and four girls receive 15 cents an hour.

The laundry is lighted from a gasoline plant which also furnishes heat for the hand irons. "When the washing comes in the pieces are separated according to color." Ordinary flat work is washed separately and is divided into light and heavy.

The manager does not consider the scheme an experiment, but believes that every *successful creamery* should have a laundry in connection. Under date of June 20, he says: "We are now building an addition so as to be able to accommodate our increasing patronage. Last week we washed and ironed 125 large family washings at a cost of about \$1 per washing; we also did a large amount of bundle work. We are convinced that there should be a coöperative laundry in every prosperous and progressive community."

The introduction of the parcel post, however, may change the situation, as the regular laundries, somewhat startled by the co-operative proposition, are making strenuous efforts to get the rural patronage.

Certain general facts obtained through individual canvass show the conditions among Minnesota farms.

Information received from Miss Mary L. Bull, instructor in the Extension Division of the University Farm, St. Paul, follows:

1. The use of electricity in the farm homes is rare.
2. Some do use the small engines used on the farm for other purposes and some use water power; not nearly so many, however, as might.
3. A comparative few have gasoline irons, and a few use alcohol, but I cannot say as to charcoal.
4. Some use vacuum cleaners.
5. Quite a good many use bread mixers.
6. The use of gasoline gas for light is more general than I had supposed.

The following information was obtained from representatives of the most progressive of the farmers' families of Minnesota in meetings assembled.

Of the 136 families living on farms: 20 families use gasoline engines for laundry work; 104 families have hand washers and wringers; 4 families send all laundry work to steam laundry; 53 families send

collars and cuffs to steam laundry; 13 families send all flat work to steam laundry; 11 families have a woman come to the house and do laundry work; 1 family has a wringer only; 1 family has neither washer nor wringer.

The following information was obtained from students in the High School at St. Anthony Park, Minnesota:

Of the 173 families living in cities or towns: 10 families have water power washers and wringers; 2 families have gasoline power washers and wringers; 4 families have electric power washers and wringers; 18 families send all laundry work to steam laundry; 51 families send all flat work to steam laundry; 78 families send all collars and cuffs to steam laundry; 51 families send all shirts to steam laundry; 20 send part (kind not stated) to steam laundry; 23 families have a woman come to house to do washing; 10 families have a woman at the house part of the time; 6 have no washer, wringer or help.

Miss Jessie Hoover has canvassed the States of Idaho, Montana, Washington and Oregon.

The questionnaire sent by her to the Masters of the State Granges, to the State Dairy Commissioners, and to the managers of the Farmers' Coöperative creameries follows, with a digest of the answers received incorporated in it.

Investigation of the feasibility of combining coöperative laundries with farmers' coöperative creameries.

The following is a statement of the results of the tabulated information received:
 Name of the creamery furnishing information.....
 Location: Idaho, Washington, Oregon, Montana.....

1. Do you maintain a laundry in connection with your coöperative creamery?
 All answered "No."

2. Have you studied the success of creameries where laundering is done?
 2 answered "Yes," others "No."

3. How many farms send milk or cream to you? 72,030.

4. Have you a high pressure steam plant for your creamery, if so how many pounds pressure can you maintain? 100-150.

5. Is this steam constantly in use? (1) If not could it for little or no additional expense be utilized for other purposes, as in the laundry for sterilization, boilers for clothes, starch cookers, dry rooms etc.? All answered "Yes." (1) 4 answered "Yes", others "No."

6. Is the cream brought to the creamery in the ordinary farm wagon? 1 said "No." In the ordinary milk can? "Yes." Tightly closed? "Yes."

7. In your opinion would it be possible to take bags, baskets with oil cloth covers, or boxes of laundry on the same wagon with milk cans? "Yes."

8. Can the clean clothes be returned to the farm home in the same manner? 1 said "No," others said, "Yes."

Would your patrons be willing to avail themselves of such an opportunity? "Cannot say." If so do you think that the work of the farm home would be greatly lessened? "Yes."

10. Do you think such a plan would help to make the creamery a financial success? 2 said "No," 2 in doubt, others "Yes." Could it be carried on with economy to the farmer? 2 in doubt.

11. Is there any demand for "rough dry" washing, letting the housewife do the ironing? "Yes."

12. Could a separate room be devoted to the laundry or could the steam be piped to a separate building which might be used as a laundry, thus avoiding unsanitary conditions? 1 answered "No", others "Yes", separate building.

13. Are the employees in your creamery kept busy constantly at all seasons of the year? "Yes" and "No". If not could you utilize such persons to run the laundry machinery? 1 "No."

14. If the School of Agriculture of your state should train young women in the chemistry of textiles, and laundry processes would you be willing to employ them to manage a coöperative laundry? 1 in doubt, others "Yes." If so what wages could they reasonably expect? "Cannot say."

Name of person furnishing information.....

Remarks: Of all the creameries canvassed only one was universally negative. The answer in this case was "No time to play." In general great interest is shown.

In reply to these letters the committee found that there are a number of farmers' coöperative creameries. Up to the present time no farmers' coöperative laundry in the four states mentioned has been found but certain creameries in the states of Wisconsin and Kansas have added the coöperative laundries. Miss Hoover's purpose in this particular investigation was twofold: first, a desire to relieve the farm home of the drudgery of what someone has termed "blue Monday;" second, to find definite employment for students graduating from the shorter courses of the agricultural colleges (such students not having had sufficient training to become teachers and many of them not desiring to be domestics). A third purpose might be added that in many cases the coöperative creamery has not proved a financial success and this seems to be one method of reaching that end.

In order to show the interest which has been taken in the coöperative laundry investigations of the extreme northwest the following letters are quoted:

Dairy Commissioner of Idaho: I was glad to get your letter of recent date with reference to the utilizing of waste steam from creamery plants for steam laundry purposes. I see nothing objectional to this, providing it is piped to a place remote

from the creamery, so that the unsanitary conditions that result from our average laundry will not have its effect upon the dairy products prepared in our coöperative creameries. Any assistance I can give you along this line of research I shall be only too glad to give.

Dairy Commissioner of Montana: I do not see anything wrong with the list of questions that you have got for the creameries, and shall be pleased to have you take this matter up with the Montana creameries. With best wishes for your success in the matter.

Dairy Commissioner of Oregon: I am certainly in favor of anything along this line. We all know that a great burden of unavoidable work usually falls upon the housewife located upon the farm and the dairy farm is no exception in this case and anything that can offer a relief from some of these burdens must necessarily be hailed with approval by all parties interested in these questions. I see no reason why a coöperative creamery might not operate this way as indicated by these questions. In fact, after reviewing them thoroughly it seems to me that question number 7 is the only one contained therein that might be objectionable. However if in all cases closed baskets were used for the transportation of soiled clothing I do not believe there would be any objection to transporting them with the milk.

. . . . The country creamery has been built up and grown to its present status for the reason that from the economical standpoint it is a money saver as well as a labor saver. This, we might say, is due to all our later day improvements including many conveniences which we find in the country home at present and which at one time were looked upon as accessories to city life. So let us look forward to the day when the city laundry may be made to reach the country home and I congratulate you upon this step and hope to see it carried forward.

Dairy Commissioner of Washington: To combine these with coöperative creameries, would, it seems to me, be a doubtful experiment unless two separate buildings were erected, both however, operated by the same power as a matter of economy and then the greatest care must be exercised in the drainage and sanitary conditions. . . . With these latter precautions I think the matter might be worked out economically on behalf of the farmers.

Master of the State Grange of Washington: This is indeed one of the most important and advanced ideas and such a laundry should be established in every creamery located in the rural districts. In many places in Kansas these rural laundries are in operation and give universal satisfaction.

Master of the State Grange of Idaho: I would like to see some such plan carried out as suggested in your letter of the 22nd. However, creameries are pretty scarce in our vicinity. We are hoping to see such establishments erected in the near future. I have been thinking about this laundry business for some time, especially when having to help out on wash day. . . . I hope to live to see the day when conditions will be changed.

Miss Hoover says that she will send out letters and questions to the other western states sometime during the summer and hopes to be ready with further information along this line next year if the Association so desires.

Naturally the next step in the project is to plan an inexpensive and satisfactory equipment for such purposes.

The second line of work investigated by the committee and fairly summarized was *uniformity in charges* and *uniformity in marks* among the commercial laundries.

This work, instigated by Mrs. Dewey, aimed to prevent the multiplicity of laundry marks and their prominence.

Certain suggestions were made and these were sent to representative laundries for study.

The verdict seems unanimous—there can be no uniformity in price, for there is no uniformity in the amount of soil, and only in a very few articles any uniformity in size and style of the piece. Wages differ and the running expenses vary greatly. *Charges* are now standardized as closely as possible. This applies only to the large commercial laundries. The small plants are independent and a law unto themselves.

Uniformity in *marking* involves two elements—the place and the symbol. Most of the better plants already have uniformity of *place*. Uniformity of symbol seem to some most undesirable as it eliminates the possibility of identification when complaints occur.

The following may serve as a basis for simplicity and uniformity in marking garments: Garments which button either in front or back, mark on inner button side, midway between top and second button; garments which button with bands around the waist, mark on inside of band near button.

These two simple directions will cover the majority of underclothing, but on delicate garments with ribbons in place of openings, owners should mark tapes and sew on directly under left arm opening, unless they do not object to ink there, which will probably show through.

A uniform symbol system might be worked out on some such basis as the Cutter alphabetic order table for libraries, which, with an index for both names and laundry pieces, would be simple enough for general use and might thus secure uniformity.

There is a fair degree of uniformity among the largest laundries but the smaller plants and individual launderers consult their own convenience or have not yet realized the needs and dissatisfaction of their patrons.

It may be possible for the readers of this journal to propose an acceptable system.

The following list combines the different practices of several prominent laundries, at present, and is published here for examination and criticism.

- Undershirts—wrong side, back of neck, middle.
wrong side of inner lap between first and second button.
- Underdrawers—wrong side, button lap, top.
wrong side, button lap, between first and second.
wrong side, button lap, near button.
- Night shirts—wrong side, button lap, lower edge.
wrong side, middle of neck, under collar.
- Night dresses (open)—wrong side, button lap, lower edge.
(closed)—wrong side, button lap, under upper button.
wrong side, near shoulder.
wrong side, under left arm hole.
- Chemises—wrong side, under left arm hole.
wrong side, on shoulder.
marked tape under left arm opening.
- Drawers—wrong side, behind button.
wrong side, button side, at top.
- Corset covers—wrong side, below last button.
wrong side, button side, lower edge.
wrong side, under left arm hole.
marked tape under left arm hole.
- Shirts—wrong side, back of neckband, above button hole.
wrong side, back of neckband, right of button hole.
wrong side, button lap, between first and second button.
- Skirts—wrong side, near button on band.
wrong side, right side of button.
- Shirt-waists—wrong side, below last button.
- Collars—wrong side, middle button hole, above.
wrong side, right side of middle button hole.
- Cuffs—wrong side, middle.
wrong side, right side of center button hole.
wrong side, end, near tab.
- Aprons—wrong side, button side, end of band.
wrong side, near beginning of strings.
- Table cloths—wrong side, near end of hem, any corner.
- Napkins—wrong side, near end of hem, any corner.
wrong side, near corner, not near monogram.
- Sheets—wrong side, near end of small hem.
wrong side, left hand lower corner, small hem.
- Pillow slips—wrong side, near opening.
wrong side, right of seam.
wrong side, left of seam.
- Blankets and Bed Spreads—wrong side, near corner.

Towels—wrong side, end opposite to monogram.

wrong side, lower border, smoothest part, near corner.

name woven in if possible.

Hose—wrong side, at top, near seam.

marked tapes sewed on, or fine tagged laundry safety pins.

Handkerchiefs—marked tape sewed through thickest part of hem, removed before delivery.

marked tape through thickest part of hem and tied loosely, removed.

very fine tagged safety pins put through thickest part of hem.

no mark, washed in net bags.

Coats—wrong side, center of back of neck.

Combinations—wrong side, center of back of neck.

Dresses—wrong side, button side, at waist.

Vests—wrong side, on strap.

Neckties—wrong side, middle of back.

Pajamas—same as underwear.

The "Trademark," or variation in mark, serves as a ready means of recognition and proof both to patron and to laundryman. It is the small concern, the "hand laundry," the "one-day-service" plants, that make most of the trouble in the multiplication of marks. They have so little to lose that they will not study the convenience of the patrons to the extent necessary to bring about uniformity or a diminution of marks.

The system of marks recommended by the committee is open for your inspection and suggestion.²

S. MARIA ELLIOTT, *Chairman*,
L. RAY BALDERSTON,
JESSIE M. HOOVER,
JUNIATA SHEPPARD,
EDGAR A. FISHER,

Committee.

² Suggestions concerning this subject may be sent to Miss Emma Gunther, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

"AMERICAN COOKERY. BY AN AMERICAN ORPHAN
1819."

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS.

The JOURNAL presents elsewhere, through the courtesy of Miss Anna Barrows, a photographic reproduction of the title page and a typical page of recipes from "American Cookery, or the Art of Dressing Viands, Fish, Poultry, and Vegetables; and the best mode of making Puff-pastes, Pies, Tarts, Puddings, Custards and Preserves; and all kinds of Cakes from the Imperial Plum to Plain Cake; Adapted to the Country and all grades of life." By an American Orphan. Brattleborough (Vermont), 1819. The book came to Miss Barrows from her grandmother to whom, while a young girl, it was a gift, probably in the year of its publication. Mrs. Lincoln of Boston owns another copy which her publishers picked up in England some years ago and presented to her. The recipe which our quotation gives for "Syllabubs" ought to be famous, especially the recipe at the top of the page—"To make a fine syllabub from the cow: Sweeten a quart of cider with double refined sugar, grate nutmeg into it, then milk your cow into your liquor, when you have thus added what quantity of milk you think proper, pour half a pint or more, in proportion to the quantity of syllabub you make, of the sweetest cream you can get all over it." Though the reader of today perceives at a glance the difficulty in securing the necessary bovine coöperation in concocting this early American nectar of the gods, yet each reader will register a vow that when he owns a farm he will maintain a special cow and private cider press devoted solely to the production of "syllabubs."

In another edition of the "Orphan's" cookbook is another recipe, which deserves fame, on "How to broil a steak with two Newspapers"—so that even our latest paperbag cookery had a fore-runner in this old time practitioner of the gentle art of cookery.

In passing, one might suggest the value of old books like this in giving a background to our home economics teaching of today. In looking over old book collections and in visiting second-hand book stores, let us have our craft in mind.

EDITORIALS.

Secretary Houston of the Department of Agriculture, on October 1, sent out an inquiry addressed to "the housewives in the homes of official crop correspondents," asking suggestions as to ways in which the Department of Agriculture might serve the American home. The Secretary, in his circular, (50,000 copies of which were sent out), stated that he had received a letter which said: "The farm woman has been a most neglected factor in the rural problem and she has been especially neglected by the National Department of Agriculture." "This letter was written," the Secretary continues, "not by a woman but by a broad-minded man so thoroughly in touch with the domestic and agricultural needs of the country that his opinions have great weight."

This action on the part of the new Secretary cannot but be gratifying to all workers in home economics who have appreciated the value of the services which the Department of Agriculture is already rendering to the home and who have been anxious to see this service extended in needed ways. One must take issue, however, with the Secretary's informant as to the neglect of the farm women in the past by the national Department of Agriculture. The long list of Farmers' Bulletins dealing with topics of food and nutrition is a service such as no other national government has offered to its home women. Teachers of household science have recognized the value of this service from the first. The late Professor Atwater, formerly director of the Office of Experiment Stations in the Department of Agriculture and the first American authority in the field of nutrition, established this strikingly useful series of popular bulletins for home betterment; to him also we owe, in large part, the recognition of household science today as a subject worthy of investigation and study. Professor Atwater, it should be remembered, suggested the first conference on household economics at Lake Placid fifteen years ago; and the ten national gatherings there, as well as the later meetings of teachers and other workers in household science, have always recognized the value of the services rendered to the home by the

Department of Agriculture through its investigations and popular publications. This was illustrated at the last meeting of the American Home Economics Association at Cornell University in June, when among the resolutions with regard to legislation the following minute was adopted: The Association recognizes the great value of the activities now conducted by the United States Department of Agriculture, especially in its Division of Nutrition Investigations of the Office of Experiment Stations in their relation to the home, and especially urges that the Department of Agriculture provide as rapidly as possible for the broadening of these investigations which serve the farm homes and other homes of our country, so that problems of clothing and shelter shall receive attention equally with those of nutrition.

The JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS would simply express again the appreciation of its readers for the aid already rendered by the Department of Agriculture and their gratification that the new Secretary has under consideration an extension of its services to the home women of the country.

The possessor of a household purse however shallow belongs to a guild whose combined outgo must be reckoned in billions. It is the woman whose choice dictates the furnishings and fittings of the house, the items that make up the bills for food and clothing and the thousand outlays classed in the expense account under sundries, that pitfall of the inexperienced manager. And so well recognized is this power of the household buyer that a newspaper which relies on income from its advertisers cannot hope for success unless it can prove that it is a "family paper" and read by women.

But there yet remain many untried ways by which the daily newspaper might tighten its hold on the woman reader. For instance, it could take more seriously those crises in the household which are ever recurring and far more important than the need of a waist pattern or a recipe for a pudding. The housewife needs, most of all, help in making connection with those who do various kinds of work by the hour, day, or week and still more with those who might be induced to undertake it, and her present failure to make this connection is partly owing to the fact that she does not know how to write an advertisement. How should she know? It is a business of itself which has been found worthy of careful study.

The advertising manager might well consider that this part of his field is badly organized at present, that few women, comparatively, attempt to find their household help by advertising because of previous failures, and that when they do advertise, they state their requirements badly, often omitting essential points.

The trained staff of any newspaper could change this state of things in a twinkling. An English journal has done it during the last year. The London *Daily Mail* prints a form to be filled out by the would-be employer and it covers all requirements and privileges; the kind of house, if not a flat, whether with or without basement; number in the family; kind of work; what other helpers are employed; whether an inexperienced worker would be trained; wages; outings allowed, etc. To quote, "An expert will then draft from the particulars given a comprehensive advertisement. The Management do not feel that they can conscientiously accept payment for advertisements that have no prospect of success." There is a uniform charge of two shillings (fifty cents) for all advertisements. The writer was told by householders that this help had delivered them from the intelligence office, whose methods seem to be as objectionable in English cities as they are with us, and numerous letters published by the *Daily Mail* go to prove that the new plan is a great success.

To increase its hold on the serving class and to insure that the paper is frequently read, the *Daily Mail* offers bonuses from time to time equal to a month's wages to all maids who answered an advertisement on a certain day some months previous and have kept the situation then obtained. This plan has all the charm of a lottery and the dates seem to be followed with great eagerness.

Why should not the housekeeper bring this assured success in efficient advertising to the notice of the most enterprising newspaper of her city or village?

The program for the second annual observance of Richards Day, or Home Economics Day, on December 3, 1913, was printed in the September BULLETIN OF THE AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION, and a copy has been sent to the heads of home economics departments in all schools, normal schools, and colleges. Any person who has not received a copy may have one on request.

All schools are asked to arrange an observance, either on the day suggested or some other convenient day, with at least a talk or ad-

dress in commemoration of the services of Mrs. Richards as founder of the home economics movement. Every school and college, it is hoped, will plan at this time or later during the year, a candy sale or other means of contributing to the Richards Memorial Fund. In many instances this has been found an easy method of providing a school contribution of from \$10 to \$50 in amount. Let each of our thousand institutions take such action, those who were successful last year repeating their plans, and thus the growing Richards Memorial Fund will press on to complete success.

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Prices and Consumption of Food in Holland. F. W. Mahin, *Daily Cons. and Trade Rpts.* [U. S.], xvi, 1913, no. 201, p. 1191. (Data on bread.)

Cost of Living in England. A. E. Ingram and W. C. Hamm, *Daily Cons. and Trade Rpts.* [U. S.], xvi, 1913, no. 209, pp. 1373-1375.

(Data on rents, food, fuel, and clothing in two large cities.)

Prices of Principal Commodities [in Peru]. L. G. Dreyfus, Jr., *Daily Cons. and Trade Rpts.* [U. S.] xvi, 1913, 154, pp. 52-53.

The Art of Right Living. Alice Ravenhill, *Brit. Columbia Dept. Agr. Bul.* 1, 1913, pp. 23, figs. 7.

Approved Methods for Home Laundering. Mary B. Vail, *Hampton Leaflets*, 6, 1913, no. 11, pp. 40, pls. 5.

Inquiry into the Cost of Living in Australia. G. H. Knibbs, *Off. Yearbook Aust.*, 5, 1912, pp. 1167-1184. (Data collected regarding household expenditures and similar topics are reported and discussed with reference to the cost of living.)

Books for Farmers and Farmers' Wives. H. O. Severance, *Univ. Mo. Bul., Libr. Ser.*, 1, 1912, no. 4, pp. 24. (This bibliography suggests titles on home economics, animal husbandry, dairy husbandry, rural economics and sociology, and other farm topics.)

Open Air Schools for the Prevention and Cure of Tuberculosis Among Children. B. S. Warren, *U. S. Pub. Health Bul.*, no. 58.

6. MISCELLANEOUS.

Investigations of the Efficiency of Soaps and Washing Materials. E. Luksch, *Chem. Abs.* vii, 1913, no. 14, p. 2490, (from *Seifensieder Ztg.* xl, 1913, pp. 413-414; 444-445).

Microscopic Structure of Coal and its Constituents. J. Lomax, *Jour. Gas Lighting*, cxxi, 1913, p. 601; *Jour. Soc. Chem. Indus.*, xxxii, 1913, p. 276.

Concealing the Radiator, Ludwig Deubner, *House and Garden*, October, 1913, pp. 213-215; (What they do in Germany to render the radiator an attractive piece of furniture).

The Farmhouse. Helen Brinkard Young, *Cornell Reading Courses*, ii, 39, May, 1913.

A Household Ice Making Machine that uses Gas. *Gas Age*, xxxii, 1913, pp. 74-75.

Rooms in Paper. Problems in Construction and Design, The Bedroom, Nama A. Lathe and Esther Szold, *Manual Training Mag.*, 15, 1913, 1, pp. 31-43.

Concerning the Easy Chair. James Thomson, *Craftsman*, xxiv, 1913, no. 5, pp. 544-546, (Principles of construction, illustrated).

Inexpensive Home-made Milk Refrigerator. A. F. Hess, *Jour. Outdoor Life*, July, 1913.

The Use of Brains in Housework. Anne L. Wing, *Home Progress*, iii, 1913, no. 2, pp. 79-83.

BOOKS AND LITERATURE.

Any book or periodical mentioned in this department may be obtained through the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS at the price listed.

Principles of Educational Practice. By P. Klapper, Instructor of Education, College of the City of New York. New York: D. Appleton and Company. pp. 485. \$1.75. By mail of the Journal, \$1.89.

A treatise on education whose distinctive feature is the adaptation of methods of teaching and of school administration to modern social conditions. According to the author, any system of education which makes "the child the center of gravity" must be in unstable equilibrium and subject to continual change. He finds proof that the child, rather than the teacher or the curriculum is today the chief object of concern in the fact that "we welcome any plan to form special classes according to ability, gifts, or handicaps of the children" and in the tendency to "reorganize the seventh and eighth grades so as to prepare those children, who leave school, for their specialties in business or industry and the others, who continue the academic studies, for their work in the high school."

Teachers of home economics will find particularly interesting the chapters on industrial training and social adjustment. Manual or vocational education is considered as a means of securing (1) psychological development, (2) sociological adjustment, (3) economic betterment, (4) educational efficiency, and (5) ethical gains. Under the first heading, the author deprecates the undue emphasis placed in some schools on technique, "the abstract principle rather than the concrete result." "A sewing syllabus should not introduce the subject with exercises in elementary stitches. When a child is most anxious to achieve a result it should not be required to sew together bits of cloth in order to learn the kinds of stitches and the elementary technique. . . . Let the little girl begin sewing by making something she needs, then teach the necessary stitches in the course of actual creation."

Evidence that training in the practical arts is to be a means of sociological adjustment is found in the reorganization (above referred to) of the work of the seventh and eighth grades to make it meet more closely the needs of the 95 per cent of public school pupils who do not reach the high schools. "What a blessing education would be if only 50 per cent of these two years were devoted to elusive 'culture' and the rest of the time to acquiring a mastery of the elements of millinery, dress-making, household economy, stenography and typewriting, bookkeeping, or any one of a host of occupations that will enable a child to find its niche in the industrial world in which it must live."

The economic justification for industrial training on the ground that "respect for machine products, machine pottery, machine glassware, machine furniture, is continually growing less" and that there is consequently an increasing demand for skilled workers will be questioned on the ground of fact and also of relevancy. The existence of occupations which call for no skill and demand no preparatory training

is recognized as a social misfortune, but it is a question whether improvement in this respect is coming, or could come, through a return to handicraft. What is most needed is a larger number of opportunities for work which call for and develop all the powers of the worker and it is unfortunate to overlook the possibility that these opportunities may come through improvement in factory methods and as the result of a more intelligent use of machinery.

Other subjects treated are Self-Activity and Mental Development; Instincts; Imitation and Emulation; The Doctrine of Interest and Effort; Perception; Apperception; The Thought Processes of Conception, Judgment and Reason; Formal Discipline; and the Education of the Emotions. Attention is given also to the use of school houses for social centers, eugenics, and the problems of adolescence. The Settlement Movement is credited with having made "a vital contribution to the progress of education."

Five Books on Sex Hygiene. By Dr. E. B. Lowry. Chicago: Forbes and Company.

Herself. Pp. 221. \$1. By mail of the Journal, \$1.10.

Himself. By E. B. Lowry and R. J. Lambert. Pp. 216. \$1. By mail of the Journal. \$1.10.

False Modesty. Pp. 110. \$0.50. By mail of the Journal, \$0.55.

Truths. \$0.50. By mail of the Journal, \$0.55.

Confidences. \$0.50. By mail of the Journal, \$0.55.

"False Modesty" is an earnest and forceful plea for the general dissemination of information upon various subjects and details often grouped together as sex hygiene; and for intelligent community action regarding some of them. That mothers should teach their daughters, and fathers their sons, the meaning of the reproductive structures and their hygiene, the author agrees, in common with most other teachers. Yet the community has much to do, not only in the city, where the problem of providing for the social life of homeless youth is so great a one, but also in country districts, where sequestration often makes wrong-doing easy. Woman's inhumanity to her fallen sister is earnestly deplored. Teaching the science of motherhood at some appropriate point in the girl's formal education is recommended; such details as the following being suggested: Care of the reproductive organs and effects of irregular habits, improper diet and clothing upon them; care of children and adolescents; and school hygiene especially as related to the girl's health.

In "Confidences", a book written for the little girl, the point of departure is the assumption that any normal girl will look forward to marriage and the possession of healthy children of her own. The mysteries of reproduction are gradually unfolded to her in a series of stories concerning flower babies (explaining cross fertilization), bird babies, mother's baby (explaining names and functions of reproductive organs and menstruation). Practical lessons of personal hygiene are enforced which will lead to carefully "building the nest" (development of reproductive organs), and concluded with the wise advice to "go to mother with all questions, for she will always tell you anything you want to know."

"Truths" is similarly written for the young lad. The stories are of flower pollen, fish milt, fertilization of the egg of the frog, other animals, and the human species; man's responsibility for and chivalry towards women and girls is urged because

they are the future mothers; warnings are given against the venders of fake advice and patent medicines and against abuse of the reproductive organs because of the impairment of the vigor of manhood which may result and the dangers which may threaten the future home.

"Herself" is a manual of sex hygiene for women. It begins with an account of the anatomy and physiology of the female reproductive organs more simply written than those to be found in most text books. Menstruation, diseases of the reproductive organs (including the "black plague"), self abuse, embryology, inheritance of disease or that due to maternal impressions, the various causes of "race suicide," the law which prohibits a physician from giving information as to the prevention of pregnancy, other practical questions of eugenics, the divorce question, "white slavery," and the instruction of children upon sex matters, are some of the topics which are most ably discussed.

"Himself" deals with many of the same and similar topics, and is written for men. Each of these books is characterized by a broad-minded, sane point of view, and by that rare but priceless quality in the reformer—moderation.

The Protein Element in Nutrition. By D. McCay. London: E. Arnold. 1912. Pp. xv + 216. pls. 8. 10 s. 6d.

This volume which is one of the International Medical Monographs, presents an exhaustive summary of the author's very extended investigations and the work of others bearing upon the importance of protein in the diet. The material is discussed with reference to low protein theories with which the author does not agree.

The following chapter headings show the scope of the work: The food of mankind, tropical food materials and their digestibility, the protein metabolism of mankind, the protein requirements of mankind, the merits and demerits of dietaries poor in protein, the effects of a low protein dietary in the Tropics, and the effects of the level of protein metabolism on the physique and general efficiency of different tropical tribes and races.

Some of the author's extensive investigations with native races in India have been published in full during the last five years. The results of later work on the effects of Bengal food materials on pigeons are briefly summarized in the present volume. The author concludes that none of the Bengal foodstuffs caused polyneuritis, neither the dals used in Bengal nor the Indian or country rice. "It is evident therefore, that the absence of the beri-beri vitamin in their dietary is not the explanation of the poor physique of the Bengalis."

With reference to his purpose and conclusions, the author states that in the present volume he has made use "of the observations and investigations of a great many of the more important recent publications on the subject, and has attempted to show that the weight of evidence is entirely against the great reduction of the protein content and caloric value of the dietaries of mankind so strongly advocated.

"Recent investigations by different research workers have shown that it is possible to reduce very considerably the quantity of protein necessary to maintain an animal in nitrogenous equilibrium, when the particular nitrogenous compounds required by that animal are given only in the food. In fact, at the present time, no one denies the feasibility of maintaining either man or animals in a condition of nitrogenous equilibrium on quantities of protein very much below the standards set up by the old masters in the science of nutrition.

"If we knew exactly how much and what particular nitrogen compounds the body requires in each specific state of nutrition, it is rational to expect that it would be possible to maintain the body in health, vigor, and efficiency on quantities of protein very much less than those hitherto considered necessary; but, as we do not know what form of nitrogen combination nor how much of any particular unit is required in the different states of bodily nutrition, it is surely only rational that, in order to insure a sufficiency of those elements absolutely essential, a liberal standard of dietary should be recommended. . . .

"It seems, therefore, only reasonable to lay down such a standard of protein in the feeding of man as will at least give to the body the opportunity of obtaining the particular combinations it requires in any given state of nutrition.

"This deduction is fully borne out by a careful consideration of the information available from dietary studies carried out in many different countries, and particularly by the investigations made in India to determine the effects of different degrees of protein interchange on several tribes and races living under exactly the same conditions, except as regards diet. An absolutely dispassionate survey of the physical development and general capabilities of the races and people of India points undoubtedly to the conclusion that, other factors being eliminated, those who obtain a liberal supply of absorbable protein in their daily food are superior in every respect to those whose dietaries exhibit any marked degree of lowering of the average protein standard.

"The general conclusion arrived at, from a broad consideration of all the facts available in the present state of our knowledge, is that the views held by the older writers on nutrition are sounder and more in accord with the findings of careful scientific study than are those of the newer school."

Photographs of Indian natives who are accustomed to low and abundant protein rations, elucidate the text; and an index is provided.

The New Hostess of To-day. By Linda Hull Larned, with illustrations by Mary Cowles Clark. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1913. Pp. xxiii + 428. \$1.50. By mail of the Journal, \$1.62.

This book is an old and valued friend, the companion of some of our lighter moments in the past returned to us in fresh attire. Many of us have no moments so light as some of those for which the book is intended, when *Beef Poêled with Mirepoix* or *Biscuit Glacé Diplomate* is served but we are glad that such moments come to others and that when they arrive there is available so well-planned, so well-written a book as the *New Hostess of To-day*, so presentable in appearance and so explicit in its directions. Like its predecessor, *The Hostess of To-day*, the book is chiefly helpful for those who entertain.

Modern Theories of Diet and Their Bearing upon Practical Dietetics. By A. Bryce. London: E. Arnold, 1912. Pp. xv + 368. \$1.82.

On the basis of personal observation and study the author discusses the theory and practice of vegetarianism, low-protein dietaries, and purin-free or uric-acid-free dietaries; and dietetic theories associated with mineral salts, water, raw food, curdled milk, fasting, and other systems. General questions of metabolism are also discussed.

Some statements from the concluding chapter—the practice of moderation—follow: A consideration of the arguments advanced for and against the dietetic systems considered “will suffice to reveal the only principle which is of universal application in the selection of a diet. It is obvious to the scientific mind, at the very outset, that there can be absolutely no justification for the claims made by each set of propagandists for the wholesale adoption of their tenets and practice, because the personal factor which is of such vital importance in all human affairs is overwhelmingly so in the question of diet. . . .

“It has been held that popular taste is an infallible indicator of the best and most suitable nutritive items in a nation’s bill of fare, and doubtless there is a period in the history of every country, before it has emerged from its primary isolation and come into contact with other nations, when this may be true. In such circumstances the selection of food is dictated less by choice than by necessity, and as the resources of most countries are strictly limited—and this remark applies with especial force to the most robust and vigorous peoples living in temperate climates—the choice is by no means boundless. It has been claimed that racial features have thus been molded, and that the character of a people owes its origin in great measure to its food. But, there is absolutely no authority for the statement that the character of a man is influenced by what he eats. . . . Diet does not alter the character of personality, but in large measure the personality decides the most suitable diet.”

As the author notes, the one thing upon which the believers in low-protein diet, in a flesh-free diet, and in a purin-free diet agree “is the diminished amount of food, and so the only conception which appears to unite them is the fundamental doctrine of moderation, which has not only been taught from time immemorial, but is actually practised by all sensible men at the present time.”

The author states that he does not doubt “that most of the systems detailed may be made to answer the nutritive and dietetic requirements of every day life for individual cases, and, as has been proved by experience, some of them may even be suitable for considerable sections of people.” He does not think, however, “that any one of them has succeeded in demonstrating its rights to the proud position of the universal food of mankind in the temperate zone.” He is personally inclined “to favor the claims of the low-protein systems as on the whole the most satisfactory system of the dietetic problem, but probably more reflective people will acquiesce in the proposition that the healthy man can live on any system of diet by attention to moderation, regularity, and variety, but the unhealthy man must look to the dietetic expert to guide him in the selection of the best system or kinds of food to suit his case.”

The volume contains a bibliography and an index.

Food in Health and Disease. By N. S. Davis. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston’s Son & Co., 1912. 2. ed., pp.xii + 449. figs.5. \$3.50.

In this volume, which is designed as a practical book on dietetics, the author discusses the general principles of diet in health and disease and the general question of feeding the sick and diet in different diseases.

It is stated that in preparing the second edition much of the material has been re-written and additions have been made to almost every subject discussed.

Beverages, Past and Present. By E. R. Emerson. New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1908. Vols. 1, pp. vi + 563; 2, pp. iv + 514. \$5.00

As noted in the subtitle, these volumes present an historical sketch of the production of beverages and a study of the customs connected with their use.

The subject matter is arranged geographically.

The Treasure Cookery Book. By M. M. Mitchell. London, New York, Bombay, and Calcutta: Longmans, Green & Co. 1913. Pp. x + 516. \$1.35 net.

This is a well-written, substantial English cook book by the instructress of cookery in the Polytechnic, London. The writer says that it has been "written especially for those who require good, wholesome, middle-class fare as economical as is consistent with good results. More elaborate dishes suitable for special occasion are included, while those who have of necessity to live on small incomes will be able to select dishes to suit their means." Besides a very large number of recipes, it contains rather more material than the average cook book on the subjects of food, marketing, simple meals, household utensils, and housekeeping. In this country it will be especially welcomed by those who wish information about those foods and methods of cooking which are typically English.

Lessons in Cooking (Theoretical and Practical) for the Sick and Convalescent. Dept. Int., Govt. Hospital for the Insane. Washington, D. C.: Govt. Printing Office. 1913. Pp. 32. Price 5 cents.

The principles of nutrition are briefly discussed and lessons given which include recipes and directions for preparing a considerable number of invalid dishes. The bulletin was prepared for the use of the cooking class of the Nurses' Training School at the Government Hospital for the Insane, Washington, D. C.

The Manufacture of Preserved Foods and Sweetmeats. By A. Hausner. Trans. by A. Morris and H. Robson. London: Scott Greenwood and Son. 1912. 2. Eng. ed. Pp. viii + 238 + 24, figs. 28. \$1.82.

This is the second English edition of this work and the author states that it has been thoroughly revised.

A Brief Course in Domestic Science. By Catharine A. Mulligan. University of Tennessee. Nashville: J. W. Brister. 1913. Pp. 54.

This bulletin, which was prepared under Professor Mulligan's direction, contains practical lessons of value to teachers in village and rural schools. It aims "to impress the teachers with the possibilities through domestic science, of raising the standard of the individual pupil, the home, the school, and the community; and of increasing the health, happiness, and prosperity of the home, the school, and the community."

The course is given in three parts. The first part includes lessons in the study of various foods; in the planning and preparations of school lunches and school socials; and in serving a meal. The second part is made up of a series of outlines for talks on sewing, laundering, textiles, soil, sanitation, etc. The third part contains recipes for everything studied in the first part.

Home Economics: A Bibliography for High Schools. State College, Pullman, Washington. 1913. Pp. 23.

This pamphlet was prepared by the Department of Home Economics of the State College of Washington. The fact that home economics is such a new subject makes it impossible to arrange a uniform study by the use of text-books. The need of some degree of "uniformity of content and instruction," in the schools of the state of Washington, led to the arrangement of this bibliography.

The classification is as follows: Food and Nutrition, Textiles, Clothing, and House Furnishing, Sanitation, Home management. Two additional lists include supplementary reading and Government Publications. Following the lists, is an outline for a high school course in home economics.

The state superintendent of public instruction says, "The bibliography of Home Economics, prepared by the Department of Home Economics of the State College of Washington for the use of high schools of the state, will be of definite service in unifying the instruction in this new field. I am glad to recommend it to superintendents, to principals, and to teachers of the subject."

Composition of Food Materials. By C. F. Langworthy. U. S. Dept. Agr., Office Expt. Stas. Charts 15 (21 x 27 in.), revised. Washington: Govt. Printing Office. \$1 per set.

The first edition of the food and diet charts prepared by the Department of Agriculture having been entirely exhausted, a new edition has been prepared. Advantage has been taken of this opportunity to make a few minor corrections and to substitute new data for the composition of grape juice based upon more recent analyses of American products. The factors which have been proposed from time to time for calculating fuel values have varied somewhat, modifications having been suggested as investigations have progressed. The figures for fuel values per pound, included in the charts originally, were gathered from a variety of sources. For the sake of uniformity they have all been recalculated in the new edition, using the factors, 4 calories per gram for protein and for carbohydrates and 9 calories per gram for fat, and 454 grams per pound, the result in every case being expressed to the nearest five. It should be borne in mind that the values are not necessarily more accurate than those originally included, since the differences are all within the possible limits of error inseparable from the use of any such factors.

The titles of the charts are as follows: Chart I, Milk and Milk Products; Chart II, Eggs and Cheese; Chart III, Meat—Fresh and Cured; Chart IV, Fish, Fish Products and Oysters; Chart V, Butter, and other Fat-Yielding Foods; Chart VI, Cereal Grains; Chart VII, Bread and Other Cereal Foods; Chart VIII, Sugar and Similar Foods; Chart IX, Roots and Succulent Vegetables; Chart X, Legumes and Corn; Chart XI, Fresh and Dried Fruit; Chart XII, Fruit and Fruit Products; Chart XIII, Nuts and Nut Products; Chart XIV, Composition, Functions, and Uses of Food; and Chart XV, Dietary Standards.

Thirteen of the charts, printed in color, show graphically the composition of common food materials, while the remaining two contain dietary standards and tabular data regarding the functions and use of food.

The new edition was issued at the request of the Superintendent of Documents and the charts must be obtained by purchase through this official, as the entire edition was turned over to him, the Department of Agriculture receiving none for distribution.

The Story of a Loaf of Bread. By T. B. Wood. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1913, pp. vi + 140, figs. 17. \$0.40; leather, \$1. By mail of the Journal, \$0.45 or \$1.05.

Wheat growing and marketing, milling, baking, the composition of bread, the relative value of different kinds of bread, and similar topics are discussed in this popular summary which is written in a way to make it readily understood by young students.

Recipes for the Preparation of the Dasheen. By R. A. Young, U. S. Dept. Agr., Bur. Plant Indus. Circ. 127, pp. 34-36.

Recipes are given for cooking dasheen in a variety of ways.

As the author points out, this vegetable, which tastes somewhat like a potato, resembles it in composition and can be used in similar ways, is a staple article of food for millions of people in tropical and subtropical countries. In general it is used in the different ways in which the white potato is used. It may also be candied like the sweet potato. The flesh of the corms and large tubers is frequently somewhat gray or violet when cooked, but this does not affect the flavor.

"When uncooked dasheens are being scraped or pared they should be handled in water to which a teaspoonful of sal soda to the quart has been added, in order to prevent irritation to the hands."

Illinois Farmers' Institute, Department of Household Science. Edited by Mrs. H. A. McKeene, Ill. Farmers' Inst., Dept. Household Sci. Year Book 1912. pp. 252, figs. 27.

In addition to the proceedings, reports, and similar data, the volume contains a number of addresses and miscellaneous papers, including among others, Educating girls for the Home, by Villa M. Sprague; Household Economics, by Mrs. A. P. Norton; Household Appliances and Conveniences, by Mrs. L. M. Cutting; A Balanced Ration, by Mrs. E. F. Ford; The Social Efficiency of the Home, by Bertha Miller; How School Work Can be More Closely Related to Home Needs, by Miriam Besley; and Training the Girl to Help in the Home, by W. A. McKeever.

A number of menu suggestions are presented, and a study of food values, published by the Illinois State Food Commission, is reprinted.

The Nutrition Coefficient of Antwerp School Children. By M. C. Schuyten Paedol. Jaarboek. 8, 1912-13, pp. 13; Bul. Sec. Chim. Belg., 26, 1912. No. 11, pp. 503, 504., Abs. Expt. Sta. Record, 29, 1913, No. 4, p. 364.

The author considers that Oppenheimer's formula for determining the nutrition coefficient is theoretically correct and that it gives a good idea of the general condition of nutrition.

Nutrition depends upon the kind of food ingested and the degree of assimilation. The author studied the effect of attendance at school on this coefficient, with children 3 to 15 years of age, and concluded that the coefficient decreased until the age of 7 years and then became either irregular or stationary.

The Composition of Different Varieties of Red Peppers. By L. M. Tolman and L. C. Mitchell, U. S. Dept. Agr., Bur. Chem. Bul. 163, pp. 32.

So little data has been readily accessible regarding different kinds of red peppers that this bulletin is very timely.

The investigations reported were undertaken to determine the normal composition of the best known commercial varieties of red peppers in order to ascertain the characteristic properties of each part and thus secure information which would lead to the detection of the presence of abnormal amounts of seeds and stems.

The study embraces nearly all of the commercial varieties of red pepper, including the African and the Japanese cayenne or chillies, the Hungarian paprika, and the Spanish pimenton, or pimienta.

Cayenne or chilli is a small fruited pepper, a variety of *Capsicum frutescens*, indigenous to tropical America, but now grown or cultivated in nearly all tropical or subtropical countries. This pepper is characterized by the small size of the pods and their extreme pungency. The leading commercial varieties for 1911, according to the authors, were the African and the Japanese.

Paprika, according to the authors, "Is a large fruited pepper, grown in Hungary, a variety of *Capsicum annuum*, a species of *Capsicum*, which is a genus of the family Solanaceæ. When powdered, it has a deep red color and a sweetish, mildly pungent flavor. Its origin is somewhat obscure, but it apparently originated in America, whence it can be traced from Spain, through Greece and Turkey, to Hungary. It has been variously designated as Turkish pepper or paprika, Hungarian pepper or paprika, or garden pepper."

With reference to the proper terminology, the authors note that pimenton, or pimienta, is the accurate name for the large fruited pepper, a variety of *Capsicum annuum*, grown in Spain. The succulent pericarp of it is much used for stuffing olives and for other purposes, while the dried pod is ground as a spice. "Pimenton" should not be confused with 'pimento' or 'pimenta,' which is applied to Jamaica pepper or allspice. 'Pimenton' is the definite term used to designate the Spanish product, when ground." The analytical data reported show that it is not practical to have a single standard applicable to all sorts. Each sample should be judged by comparison with known types.

Graham Flour—A Study of the Physical and Chemical Differences between Graham Flour and Imitation Graham Flours. By J. A. Le Clerc and B. R. Jacobs. U. S. Dept. Agr., Bur. Chem. Bul. 164, pp. 57.

Results based on the examination of many samples of such flours found on the market and in the mills, as well as of samples prepared in the laboratory of the Bureau of Chemistry, are reported concerning the physical and chemical differences between graham flour and imitation graham flours.

The report which contains a large amount of valuable data is summarized as follows:

"Although a large percentage of the so-called graham flour on the market is made by mixing inferior grades of flour with bran, there are a great many millers who still make graham flour in the original way, namely, by grinding either on stones or on rolls the whole kernel of wheat without bolting.

"True graham flour always shows relatively larger amounts of intermediate products, such as coarse and fine middlings of good grade, while imitation graham generally contains but small amounts of these same products and when these are present in large quantities they are of inferior grade. True graham contains a

larger amount of combined bran and shorts, of combined coarse and fine middlings, and a smaller amount of flour passing through the 109 sieve, than does imitation graham. The ash, fibre, and pentosans are present in larger amount in true than in imitation graham. The middlings of the true graham are of a higher character than those of imitation graham. This refers to both coarse and fine middlings. The bran of imitation graham is very often clean and free from adhering endosperm, while the bran of true graham usually contains a relatively large quantity of such endosperm. This is more or less true also of the shorts.

"One does not depend entirely upon the quantity of these intermediate products to determine whether or not a flour is genuine, but one must always determine their quality as well and relation to each other in appearance and composition, so that it is necessary to make a microscopic examination of the products of separation besides the chemical analysis."

It was not difficult to distinguish the imitation from the genuine graham in the 83 samples examined.

Definitions of milling and chemical terms used in the bulletin are given.

Microbiology for Agricultural and Domestic Science Students. Edited by C. E. Marshall. Philadelphia: P. Blackiston's Son and Company. Pp. xxi + 724. \$2.50. By mail of the Journal, \$2.70.

The principal divisions of this volume are morphology and culture of microorganisms; physiology of microorganisms; and applied microbiology, in which section such subjects are included as microorganisms in water, microbiology of sewage, microbiology of milk and milk products, and microbiology of special industries (among others, dessication, evaporation, and drying of foods, heat in the preservation of foods, the preservation of food by cold, and the preservation of food by chemicals). Microbiology of the diseases of man and animals is also considered.

The different sections have been contributed by a number of collaborators. As stated in the introduction, "Agriculture and domestic science call for the treatment of the subject in such a manner as to make it basic to the interpretation of such subjects as air impurities, water supplies, sewage disposal, soils, dairying, fermentation industries, food preservation and decomposition, manufacture of biological products, transmission of disease, susceptibility and immunity, sanitation, and control of infectious or contagious diseases. A strong effort has been made to provide the fundamental and guiding principles of the subject and to show just how these principles fit into the subjects of a more or less strictly professional or practical nature. Here the instructional work of the microbiologist stops in most educational institutions and the instruction of the practical or professional man begins."

The Lunch Room. By P. Richards. Chicago: Hotel Monthly, pp. 190, figs. 13, dgms. 40, charts 15. \$2.

This volume takes up plans, equipment, management, and accounting of lunch rooms, and the sale of foods (coffee, tea, etc.), and gives a collection of bills of fare. Dishes considered particularly suited to lunch-room trade make up the bulk of the volume.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- The Housekeeper's Handy-Book.** By Lucia Millet Baxter. New York, Houghton Mifflin Company. \$1 net. By mail of the Journal, \$1.10.
- The Home Candy Maker.** By M. A. Pease. Elgin, Illinois. \$1 net. By mail of the Journal, \$1.08.
- The Etiquette of Today.** By Edith B. Ordway. New York: Sully and Kleinteich. \$0.50 net. By mail of the Journal, \$0.55.
- Food in Health and Disease.** By Nathan S. Davis, Jr., A.M., M.D., Philadelphia: P. Blackiston's Sons and Company, 1912. \$3.50 net. By mail of the Journal, \$3.65.
- Harper's Household Handbook.** By M. M. Williams. New York: Harper and Brothers. net \$1. By mail of the Journal, \$1.08.
- The Gardener and the Cook.** By Lucy H. Yates. New York: McBride, Nast and Company. \$1.25 net. By mail of the Journal, \$1.35.
- Shelter and Clothing.** By Helen Kinne and Emma M. Cooley. New York: Macmillan Company. \$1.10 net. By mail of the Journal, \$1.20.
- Laboratory Work in Applied Chemistry, for Students in Domestic Science.** By A. Henwood and F. H. Griffin. Philadelphia: The Institute Press, Drexel Institute. 1912, pp. 62, \$1.50.
- The Task of Social Hygiene.** By Havelock Ellis. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. \$2.50 net. By mail of the Journal, \$2.65.
- The Mary Frances Cook Book, or Adventures Among the Kitchen People.** By Jane E. Fryer. Philadelphia: J. C. Winston Company. \$1.20 net. By mail of the Journal, \$1.28.
- Books of Etiquette: Boys and Girls and Manners.** By Florence Howe Hall. Boston: Dana, Estes and Company. \$1.35 net. By mail of the Journal, \$1.45.
- Colonial Homes and Their Furnishings.** By Mary H. Northend. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. \$5 net. By mail of the Journal, \$5.25.
- Reclaiming the Old House.** By Charles E. Hooper. New York: McBride, Nast and Company. \$2. By mail of the Journal, \$2.20.
- The Healthy Baby: the Care and Feeding of Infants.** By Roger H. Dennett, M.D. New York: The MacMillan Company. \$1. By mail of the Journal, \$1.12.
- The Use of Corn, Kafir and Cowpeas in the Home.** By C. F. Langworthy and Caroline L. Hunt. Pp. 12. U. S. Dept. Agr., Farmers' Bulletin 559, October 16, 1913.
- Medical Milk Commissions and Certified Milk.** By Ernest Kelly, In Charge Market Milk Investigations. Bureau of Animal Industry. September 17, 1913, pp. 38, pls. 5, fig. 1. U. S. Dept. Agr. Bulletin 1. \$0.10.
- Vitrified Brick as a Paving Material for Country Roads.** By Vernon M. Peirce, Chief Engineer, and Charles H. Moorefield, Senior Highway Engineer, Office of Public Roads. Office of Public Roads, Sept. 17, 1913, pp. 34, pls. 10, figs. 3. U. S. Dept. Agr. Bulletin 23. \$0.10.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD.

The Washington Home Economics Association held its first meeting of the season at the Washington Public Library, on the afternoon of October 7. The topic under consideration was "Markets and Marketing." Mr. Herbert A. Smith of the Department of Agriculture was asked to speak on coöperative buying as demonstrated by the Civil Service Council of which Mr. Smith is the founder. After the business of the association was completed, Mr. Smith's accounts proved so interesting and instructive that the session was practically given over to him. The Civil Service Council (originally an association of men and women in the Government and District service) have experimented in coöperative buying with such success that a coöperative grocery has been opened to all and has run most successfully for two years. The objects sought by this association are: first, the elimination of unnecessary charges upon the consumer; second, the assurance of fair dealing; third, the supply of foods that are wholesome, pure, and produced under good sanitary working conditions. The Council believes that coöperation offers the most feasible means of accomplishing these ends. The customary methods of doing retail business involves elements of cost which thrifty people would be glad to escape. These include bad debts, delayed payments, extravagance in delivery systems, and what may be called advertising charges. The Council assures fair dealing; it offers itself as an open door; it does not pretend to have solved the problems confronting the consumer; it has not arrived; it is only setting out; but it has worked out a method of business which reduces the cost of distribution to a minimum. In the open discussion which followed Mr. Smith's talk, the President of the Housekeeper's Alliance, Mrs. Alice E. Whitaker, told of two or three unsuccessful coöperative concerns in Washington. The account of these hoaxes was interesting in contrast to the open and successful operations demonstrated by the Council.

The first autumn meeting of the Executive Committee of the New England Home Economics Association was held at Elizabeth Peabody House, 357 Charles Street, Boston, on Saturday, October 18, with Mrs. White, the president, in the chair, and many other members present. Subcommittees on College Credit, Rural Schools, Grammar School Courses of Study, Dietetics, and Housekeepers Problems were duly appointed, the Chairmen to confer with the Executive Committee in a special meeting, within two weeks. The first regular meeting was held November 25. The general policy for the year is to define the place of woman's work. The general subject, the "Economic Value of Woman's Work in the Home."

Effort is being made to secure a home-room where members may go for help in solving their problems. There is a great deal of enthusiasm among the members and we have every promise of a very successful year.

Ten years ago the teachers of cooking in the Philadelphia public schools banded themselves into an organization which developed into the Home Economics Association of Philadelphia. We are proud that we have weathered Home Econom- all storms or rather all "periods of calm." This year we have ics Association strengthened our efforts by adopting a new constitution, pat- of Philadelphia. terned after the constitution of the American Home Economics Association.

To quote from our constitution: "The councilors shall be the representatives to all organizations with which we are affiliated, and the chairmen of standing committees."

Mr. John B. Leeds is our representative to the Home and School League, an organization whose name alone makes known its purpose; and Miss Alice A. Johnson is the representative to the American Home Economics Association.

Our standing committees are specially well equipped with efficient chairmen. An enumeration will give an idea of the scope of the work to be undertaken this year: School Feeding, Miss Emma Smedley; Pure Food, Miss Sydney Evans; Household Science, Miss Grace F. Blood; Household Arts, Miss M. Jane Garrett; Current Topics, Miss Hannah Hill.

To quote again from the constitution: "Each committee shall have its officers consisting of chairman and secretary, and shall be responsible for the program of at least one meeting each year."

The Home Economics Association of Greater New York held its first meeting of the season on Thursday afternoon, October 2, at the Washington Irving High School. Mr. Frank Alva Parsons, President of the New York Home Econom- School of Fine and Applied Arts, was the speaker of the after- ics Association noon, and gave a most interesting talk on "The Relation of Art of Greater New York. apartment, which was crowded almost to discomfort. Before

Mr. Parson's talk, tea was served in the demonstration dining-room by the high school students, under the direction of Miss Willard, a normal graduate of this school. A large number of the faculty of this School were present, and all the senior normal students attended.

The Home Economics Department at the University of Maine, Orono, is making rapid strides in growth and development. Much of its present status and efficiency is due to the splendid work of Miss Laura Comstock, who or- ganized the department and carried it through its infancy to University of Maine. a position of importance. In June, Miss Comstock severed her connection with the University, in order to work in a still broader field. The present staff consists of Miss Cornelia Palmer, Miss Lilian Randall and Miss Dorothea Beach.

The opening year presents problems characteristic of growing institutions and welcomed because of the life and growth thus indicated.

A number of changes have been necessary in rooms and equipment in order not only to accommodate the home economics work but to make more room for the various other branches in the College of Agriculture.

"The Maples," formerly used as a dwelling, has been remodeled for the use of classes. Here is now situated the new kitchen laboratory, increased one-third in capacity together with the supply and store rooms and department office. These are on the first floor. On the second floor, are the rooms for practical housework—a small suite consisting of kitchen, dining-room, bed-room and bath. Here also, are another office and a rest room. On the third floor is one large art room with a smaller supply room. The art room is fitted up with drawers and lockers for the use of the students and the walls are covered with burlap for exhibiting purposes. The sewing and handiwork, laundry, and lectures, are still given in Winslow Hall.

The large increase in the proportion of students taking the four year home economics course this year, gives great satisfaction to the faculty. This shows a growth in the right direction and a discerning attitude toward the importance of the work.

The Home Economics Club of Grand Rapids gave a reception on the afternoon of October 22, at which Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman was the guest of honor

**Home Econ-
ics Club of
Grand Rapids.**

About one hundred guests called during the receiving hours. The guests were received by Miss Lauretta Morrissey, President of the Home Economics Club, Mrs. Woolman, Miss Isabel Ely Lord of Pratt Institute, who was here attending the Vocational Guidance conference, and Miss Rawson.

The Iowa Home Economics Association held its annual meeting in Des Moines, November sixth and seventh, at the Young Women's Christian Association Building.

**Iowa Home
Economics
Association.**

The following program was carried out as previously arranged:

Methods of Teaching, Miss Grace Schermerhorn, Director of Practice Teaching, Iowa State College; Address, Prof. Ruth Wardall, Director Home Economics, State University; Educational Value of Pictures, Mrs. E. B. Wilson, Teachers' Institute Lecturer; Home Economics in relation to Normal Training High Schools, Mr. Fred Mahannah, State Inspector of Home Economics in High Schools; Some City Problems which Home Economics should Help to Solve, Miss Carolyn Grimsby, Municipal Courts of Chicago, formerly with School of Civics and Philanthropy, Chicago; Question Box, Professor Young, Teachers' College, and Miss Charlie Tidd, Director of Home Economics, Des Moines College; Business Meeting, conducted by Miss Neale S. Knowles, President of the Association.

On the afternoon of November 6 the home economics teachers of Des Moines invited all present at the meeting to a reception in the Young Women's Christian Association parlors.

The chief purpose of the Association is to create greater interest in the subject of good home making and general community improvement, and to establish a more hearty coöperation between teachers, club women, and all other earnest women. Every woman in the state is urged to become a member and to help make this the strongest association of its kind in the United States.

By paying the yearly dues of \$1, any Iowa woman may become a member. Send name and address to Miss Nellie Finger, Indianola, Iowa.

The *Wisconsin Journal of Education* gives this statement concerning the appointment of Miss Emma Conley as State Inspector of Domestic Science of Wisconsin.

"No better appointment has ever been made by State Superintendent Cary than that of Miss Emma Conley of Fond du Lac, Miss Conley. who comes to the position of State inspector of domestic science.

Miss Conley was for many years a teacher in the Fond du Lac public schools, later receiving her technical training at the University of West Virginia from which she has an A. B. degree. Miss Conley has also done post-graduate work at the University of Minnesota. She has been known to Wisconsin educators mostly in connection with her work in the Marathon county training school and also at Stout Institute. Last year she was head of this department in the Oshkosh normal. The domestic science teachers of the state will welcome Miss Conley to this position and they should all be considered as fortunate in having a supervisor of her qualifications and attainments."

Dr. William A. McKeever, former Professor of Philosophy in the Kansas State Agricultural College, is now Professor of Child Welfare in the University of Kansas, Lawrence. Our readers may be glad to know that this new

Dr. Wm. A. position will allow more time and opportunity for doing the real
McKeever. child welfare work in which Dr. McKeever is so much interested.

This is probably the first chair of the kind in the United States. Dr. McKeever will continue to issue the *Home Training Bulletins* charging as hitherto, two cents for samples, and one cent each for quantity orders, as a means of helping out the expense. So far the nine numbers listed below have been issued: The Cigarette Smoking Boy; Teaching the Boy to Save; Training the Girl to Help in the Home; Assisting the Boy in the Choice of a Vocation; A Better Crop of Boys and Girls; Training the Boy to Work; Teaching the Girl to Save; Instructing the Young in Regard to Sex; and The Boy's Vacation Enjoyment. The next bulletin will probably treat the subject, Teaching the Child to Play.

The American Public Health Association held its forty-first annual meeting at Colorado Springs, September 9 to 13. In addition to the seven general sessions there were eighteen sessions held by the various sections, such

American Pub- as: Laboratory, Public Health, Vital Statistics, Sanitary Engi-
Health Asso- neering and Sociology.

ciation. Some idea of the scope of the work will be given by the following subjects: Rural Health Work, Methods of Fly Fighting, Occupational Diseases, Milk and Water—ways of making them fit to drink, or preventing contamination, Infectious Diseases, Sanitation, Sewage, Securing Funds for Public Health, and Economic Aspects of Health.

These and many other subjects were discussed by prominent physicians, health commissioners, and philanthropists from nearly every State, in the Union. The unusual entertainments extended to the association included a ride through the Garden of the Gods and a jungle party and barbecue at the mouth of the Cheyenne Canon.

This Congress, which was held in Brussels July 23 to 26, 1913, was organized under the direction of the Belgian ministers of Foreign Affairs, the Interior, and Justice. An international committee of organization, composed of representatives from fifteen or twenty countries, drew up the general outline of the program. The work was divided between two sections, one on morally neglected children, and one on child hygiene and training, and included discussion of such topics as the competence of children's courts, abnormal children, means of securing uniformity in statistics of infant mortality, popularizing knowledge of child hygiene, the protection of children outside of the home, alcoholism, and the formation of an international bureau for the protection of childhood.

An International Congress for the Fight Against the Deterioration and the Adulteration of foodstuffs was held at Ghent, August 1 to 3, 1913. This was one of the notable gatherings at the Ghent "Exposition de la Falsification des Denrées Alimentaires." The work was divided into four sections, namely: Chemistry, Hygiene, Consumption—**Congress at Ghent to Oppose Food Adulteration.** Educational and Popular work,—and Legislation. The topics for consideration at the congress included protection of foods from dirt; regulation of the production and sale of mineral waters, aerated waters, ice water for household uses, etc., the production and sale of milk and milk products; organizations of buyers and consumers; the hygiene of factories and shops for manufacture and sale of foodstuffs; regulations for the washing of drinking glasses used in hotels and other public places; and similar topics.

An English-speaking Conference of the National Association (Great Britain) for the Prevention of Infant Mortality and for the Welfare of Infancy, was held at Claxton Hall, Westminster, on August 4 and 5, 1913. The Right Honorable John Burns is president of the Association and it is under the patronage of their Majesties, the King and Queen. **The Prevention of Infant Mortality.** The subjects for the Administrative section of the Conference were: The Responsibility of Central and Local Authorities in the Matter of Infant and Child Hygiene and the Administrative Control of the Milk Supply; and for the Medical Section: The Necessity for Special Education in Infant Hygiene, Medical Milk Problems, and Ante-natal Hygiene.

Valuable papers were presented at all of the Sections, the United States and Canada as well as Great Britain, being represented among the contributors. Statutory administrative authorities, medical officers of health, members of the medical profession actively engaged in clinical practice, and a number of voluntary associations were represented at the Conference by numerous delegates. The latter associations included, among others, St. Pancras School for Mothers, Women's National Health Association of Ireland, Leeds Babies' Welcomes, London County Council, Glasgow Infant Health Visitors' Association, Birmingham Infants' Health Society and School of Mothercraft, and the National League for Physical Education and Improvement. The Conference Committees included a representative committee of the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality.

The program included, among others, the following papers of special interest to Home Economics workers: The Health Authority's Work in the Home, by Dr. Charles A. Hodgetts (Ottawa); The Problem of the Institutional Child, by Dr. H. L. K. Shaw (Albany); The Teaching of Infant Care in Elementary Schools, by Dr. Christopher Addison, M. P. (London); The Education of the Girl in Relation to Infant Mortality, by Dr. Caroline Hedger (Chicago); The Necessity for Special Education in Infant Hygiene, by Dr. L. E. La Fétra (New York City); The New Zealand Scheme for Promoting the Health of Women and Children, by Dr. Truby King (Dunedin); The Necessity for Special Education in Infant Hygiene, by Dr. C. Paget LaPage (Manchester); The Essential Factors in Scientific Substitute Feeding of Infants, by Dr. Henry L. Coit (Newark, N. J.); The Simplicity and Advantages of Percentage-Feeding, Maintenance of the Proteid Ratio, and Estimation of Caloric in Ordinary Practice, by Dr. Truby King (Dunedin); The Use of Desiccated Milk, by Dr. A. E. Naisch, (Sheffield); The Economical Consideration of Uses of Dried Milk and Patent Foods, by Dr. Eric Pritchard (London); and Milk in the Poor Home, by Dr. G. R. Piser.

The efforts of the Housekeepers' Alliance are to be centered upon the establishment and maintenance of a School of Housekeeping where anyone who desires may receive instruction in all branches of housekeeping. Besides Washington this work the already active reference circle of permanent and Housekeepers' auxiliary helpers is to be continued, and the nucleus of a household bureau of information further developed. The former work of committees on investigating laundresses' homes, on market inspection, and on securing wrapped bread for the District of Columbia will undoubtedly be continued.

Teachers College has just published for free distribution a four page pamphlet giving the floor plans of Household Arts Building, Teachers Teachers College, Columbia University. It includes cuts of the various floors with accompanying descriptions. Apply to publication bureau, Teachers College, Columbia University, which will also send a list of technical bulletins published on home economic subjects.

The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education held its Seventh Annual Convention this year in the city of Grand Rapids, Michigan, October 19 to 25. In connection with this meeting, the Vocational Guidance Association will hold a convention and complete its organization. About a week is to be devoted to the meeting of these two associations and a very notable body of men and women will undoubtedly be in attendance. An exhibition is to be given of the products of manual training schools throughout the country in one of the numerous buildings in Grand Rapids devoted to displaying furniture, and the United States government is sending a very extensive exhibit of the things made by the natives in the schools of the Philippine Islands. On Sunday morning, October 19, prominent speakers from all over the United States are to occupy twenty or more of the pulpits of the Grand Rapids churches. On

the Tuesday following, the Vocational Guidance Association will hold its first session and complete its organization begun a year ago.

On Thursday the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education will have its first session. The most notable meeting will be held on Thursday evening, when Hon. Wm. C. Redfield, president of the society, and Secretary of Commerce, will be the principal speaker. Other speakers on that occasion will be Gov. Woodbridge N. Ferris, of Michigan who came into prominence as the successful teacher in an institution devoted to industrial education, and Laura Drake Gill, of the University of the South, and widely known to club women as a brilliant speaker. Other prominent speakers on other occasions will be Ida M. Tarbell; John Dewey, Professor of Philosophy, Columbia University; David Snedden, Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts; C. R. Richards, director of Cooper Union, New York; Frank M. Leavitt, of the University of Chicago; C. A. Prosser, Secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education; W. Stanwood Field, director of Evening and Continuation Schools in Boston; Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary National Child Labor Committee, New York; Prof. George H. Mead, of the University of Chicago, and Dr. Leonard P. Ayres, director of the Educational Department, Russell Sage Foundation, New York.

The Bureau of Insular Affairs, War Department, has issued a review of educational affairs in the Philippines. An abstract of this review is given to show the importance of Home Economics and related subjects.

Educational Progress in the Philippines. "In discussing general Philippine conditions before a distinguished audience in one of the great universities of this country a few months ago, a lecturer, in referring to the school system there, spoke of it as constituting 'the greatest primary school system in the world,' not in respect of the greatest number of pupils in attendance nor in respect of great amounts of money expended but great in that it meets the needs of the people and is instrumental in bringing about decidedly better economic and social conditions among them.

"Conditions in the Philippines demand early specialization. In the prescribed course of study this specialization is introduced in the first year of the intermediate courses, of which six are provided: the general course; the course for teaching; the course in farming; the trade course; the course in housekeeping and household arts; and the course in business. To delay specialization until the secondary course is reached, would result in sending out from the public schools the vast majority of the pupils without any special preparation to fit them for useful careers in the more or less humble stations in life to which the great majority of this or any other country must be confined.

"It is planned to establish at least one school offering the course in farming in each division. At present six such schools are in operation, while one additional school offers more extensive instruction in agriculture.

"There are 259 intermediate schools offering the general course; 96, the housekeeping and household arts course; 49, the teaching course; 40, the trade course; 6, the farming course; and 2, the course in business.

"All of the Insular schools which include the Philippine Normal School, the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, the School of Household Industries, the Philippine School of Commerce, and the School for Deaf and Blind, are fulfilling the purposes

for which they were established and are turning out large numbers of young men and women every year to take conspicuous places in community activities.

"The corn campaign conducted by the Bureau of Education was the most important of the special features of the work of the past school year. Two contests were arranged, one for the production of the best ears of corn, and the other for the most corn on a given area. In addition to this, demonstrations were given in practically all of the municipalities of the Islands in the use of corn as a human food.

"The campaign received the enthusiastic support of the people and officials alike, and has resulted in an immense amount of good in disseminating knowledge of the most advanced methods of corn production, and the use of corn as human food.

"One of the main purposes of this campaign was to impress upon the Filipino the fact that corn is a food for human consumption, with the hope that the cultivation of corn might be increased. Some idea of the extent of this campaign can be gained from the fact that 30,327 boys were enrolled in the contests; 6,660 girls were taught corn recipes; 235 demonstrations were held; and 247,048 people were served. Approximately one-half million people attended the demonstrations. The recipes used called for the use of utensils and ingredients found in the average Filipino home.

"The program for industrial instruction for the public schools has been carefully worked out and includes most of the important Philippine industrial activities. It covers seven years of work—the four years of the primary course, and the three years of the intermediate course—and provides instruction in agriculture, domestic science, needle work in its various forms, weaving of Philippine fibers, and work in wood, iron and clay.

"The director's report shows that during the past year 19,958 boys were taking the trade and shop work; that 100,648 boys were engaged in gardening and farming; 12,969 girls were taking the gardening work; and that 83,193 girls were studying housekeeping and household arts. Among other crafts and industries we find 12,993 girls learning lace making; 12,625, embroidery; 6,660, cooking; 10,456 boys and 3,031 girls making hats; 29,527 pupils were studying mat making; and 73,835 working on baskets."

In this connection attention is also called to the notice sent out by the U. S. Civil Service Commission. "The last examination before appointments are made of those who will attend the 1914 session of the Vacation Assembly at Baguio, the summer capital of the Philippines, as a preparation for their work with the Bureau of Education, is announced, by the United States Civil Service Commission, for December 30-31, 1913, in various cities throughout the United States.

"From the eligible list thus secured appointments will be made during the coming Spring for service in the Philippine Islands, beginning with the opening of schools next school year. The service requires: Women for Home Economics, men for agriculture, Manual Training, High School Science, Mathematics, English, History, and Supervisors of school districts. For information relative to the nature of the service and the examination, address Bureau of Insular Affairs, Washington, D. C."

CHANGES IN THE PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

Home economics workers will be interested to know that the Secretary of Agriculture has announced new plans of publication work for that department. The changes that affect the publications in which they are most likely to be interested are the following. There has been in the past an independent series of bulletins and circulars in each of the thirteen publishing bureaus, divisions, and offices of the department. Such series have included technical bulletins on Animal Production, Plant Production, Nutrition, Chemistry, etc. These series have been discontinued and will be superseded by the *Journal of Research* to contain scientific and technical matter, and by a departmental series of bulletins, written in popular language for selected and general distribution. By this plan the confusion that has resulted from the multiplicity of series of publications will be avoided, and the saving of a considerable sum will be effected annually.

Under the new plan the department will discontinue the general distribution of scientific or technical matter of little or no use to the lay reader, and will supply technical information only to those directly interested and capable of using such material and of understanding the results of research work couched in scientific terms. At the same time there will hereafter be distributed a larger amount of information in popular form which the average reader can immediately apply to his own direct advantage, and thereby increase the agricultural productiveness, aid in the rational utilization of agricultural products, and benefit the health of the nation.

The highly scientific matter, heretofore published indiscriminately in bulletins and circulars, will hereafter be published only in the newly established *Journal of Research*, which will be issued about once a month. This *Journal* will be royal octavo, of the scientific magazine type, and contain 75 to 100 pages per number, 12 numbers constituting a volume. Such matter in the *Journal* as seems to merit additional circulation may be issued in the form of reprints or separates. For the present at least, the *Journal* will include only the results of research carried on by the various bureaus, divisions and offices, but it may be extended to include the scientific research work of the state agricultural experiment stations. Extensive scientific articles, embodying a complete report of research investigations, will be considered as monographs, and may be published as supplements to the *Journal*.

The *Journal* will be distributed free to agricultural colleges, technical schools, experiment stations, libraries of large universities and certain government depositories and institutions making suitable exchanges; also to a restricted list of scientific workers. Home economics students should be able to consult this in their school or college library. Copies of the *Journal* will also be sold by the Superintendent of Documents Government Printing Office, who will also

receive subscriptions for this publication, the price being \$2.50 per volume of 12 numbers.

The *Monthly Crop Reporter* will no longer be published. As a partial substitute for the printed *Crop Reporter*, a *Weekly News Letter* to crop correspondents will be issued in typewritten facsimile form. Its circulation will be limited to official crop correspondents. It will contain summaries of more important discoveries and recommendations of the various bureaus, divisions, and offices.

The *Experiment Station Record*, like the *Weather Review* and *North American Fauna* will continue to be issued with certain modifications. The *Yearbook* will be restricted to articles of the magazine type, which, it is believed, will add greatly to the popularity and value of the volume, of which 500,000 copies are printed and distributed annually. A series of Bulletins of the U. S. Department of Agriculture will also be issued. In this series all the publications of the various bureaus, divisions and offices will be printed. These bulletins may be any size from 4 to 60 pages, and will be semi-technical or scientific, or popular in character. They will capitalize for popular use the discoveries of laboratories and scientific specialists. Bulletin No. 1 of this series, which appeared September 17, 1913, is entitled Medical Milk Commission and Certified Milk.

The series of Farmers' Bulletins will be continued, and the bulletins will contain, as heretofore, practical, concise, specific, and constructional statements with regard to matters relating to farming, stock raising, the use of agricultural products on the farm and in the home, fruit growing, etc. The form of the Farmers' Bulletins has been changed by the omission of a title page and table of contents. The first nutrition publication to appear in the new form is The Use of Corn, Kafir, and Cowpeas in the Home, which is Farmers' Bulletin No. 559. Much of the information accumulated by the Department, calling for immediate circulation, will be issued hereafter in the form of statements to the press instead of being held back as heretofore for weeks until a bulletin could be printed and issued.

The new plan of publication work has been designed primarily to improve the character of the Department's publications, and secondarily to prevent waste in distribution; and through the economies effected, a greater output of information will become possible with the available appropriation. Certain changes will be made in the existing form of the publications, designed with a view to improving their appearance, reducing their size, and adapting them to wider distribution.

The Department of Agriculture publications are of great interest and value to home economics workers. Those in which they are most likely to be interested will in the future probably be found, as the above summary shows, in the *Journal of Research*, the Department of Agriculture Bulletins, the Farmers' Bulletins, and the *Yearbook*. This applies to the publications resulting from the Nutrition Investigations of the Office of Experiment Stations, which directly deal with a home economics topic—food and its use—and also those which frequently contribute to home economics, issued by other Bureaus of the Department of Agriculture, including the Bureau of Chemistry, Bureau of Animal Industry, Bureau of Plant Industry, and the Bureau of Entomology. As heretofore, abstracts of current American and foreign work on all these lines will be found in the *Experiment Station Record*.

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